THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGY USE WITH LANGUAGE MOTIVATION AND LANGUAGE ANXIETY AMONG YEMENI POSTGRADUATES IN MALAYSIA

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Abstrak

Kajian empirikal yang meneliti penggunaan strategi komunikasi lisan (OCSs) dalam kalangan pelajar pascasiswazah amat terbatas. Selain itu, kajian yang melihat hubungan antara penggunaan OCS dengan motivasi berbahasa dan kebimbangan berbahasa juga masih kurang dijalankan. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk mengenal pasti penggunaan OCS dalam kalangan pelajar pascasiswazah dari Yaman yang sedang mengikuti pengajian di Malaysia bagi menentukan sama ada terdapat hubungan antara penggunaan OCS dengan motivasi berbahasa dan kebimbangan berbahasa. Di samping itu, kajian ini mengenalpasti sama ada terdapat perbezaan dalam penggunaan OCS berdasarkan angkubah demografi. Sebanyak lapan hipotesis telah dikemukakan bagi menguji hubungan ini. Taksonomi yang digunakan dalam kajian ini melibatkan 21 OCS yang dipilih daripada taksonomi OCS yang lepas oleh Tarone (1977), Faerch dan Kasper (1983b), dan Dornyei dan Scott (1995a, 1995b). Walau bagaimanapun, terdapat 11 OCS yang tidak diwakili oleh sebarang item dalam inventori OCS yang digunakan. Sehubungan itu, pengkaji telah menjana 12 item strategi komunikasi lisan untuk menampung kelompangan dalam inventori tersebut. Proses kesahan dan kebolehpercayaan dijalankan terhadap 12 item strategi komunikasi lisan. Berdasarkan kaedah persampelan secara rawak, seramai 171 orang responden dipilih. Responden ini mengambil bahagian dalam soal selidik berbentuk kuantitatif yang merentas bahagian yang dijalankan dalam laman sesawang. Hasil kajian ini menunjukkan strategi pengulangan, pembetulan kendiri, penjelasan, penerangan berbelit, penggantian makna, pengesahan, dan pengolahan semula ayat secara kendiri adalah merupakan strategi komunikasi lisan yang sangat kerap digunakan oleh pelajar pascasiswazah Yaman di Malaysia. Dapatan kajian juga menunjukkan terdapat hubungan positif yang lemah antara OCS yang digunakan dengan motivasi berbahasa, dan sebaliknya terdapat hubungan yang kukuh antara OCS dengan kebimbangan berbahasa. Dapatan kajian juga menunjukkan terdapat perbezaan yang ketara dalam penggunaan OCS di kalangan pelajar pascasiswazah berdasarkan faktor jantina, tempoh menetap di Malaysia, dan persepsi sendiri terhadap penguasaan lisan bahasa Inggeris. Tidak terdapat perbezaan berdasarkan faktor umur, tahap pengajian dan bidang pengajian mereka. Kurangnya menguasai kemahiran komunikasi, tiadanya bermotivasi dan kebimbangan berbahasa merupakan penyebab utama penggunaan OCS dalam kalangan pelajar pascasiswazah dari Yaman. Kajian ini menyumbang kepada peningkatan kesedaran dan pengetahuan guru bahasa Inggeris dan pereka bentuk kurikulum mengenai keperluan meningkatkan penggunaan OCS, mengurangkan kebimbangan berbahasa dan meningkatkan tahap motivasi berbahasa dalam kalangan pelajar.

Kata kunci: Strategi komunikasi lisan, Motivasi berbahasa, Kebimbangan berbahasa, Kemahiran bahasa.

Abstract

Empirical research on the use of Oral Communication Strategies (OCSs) among postgraduates is limited. Additionally, studies of the relationships between the OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety are still lacking. This research aims at identifying the OCSs used most by Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia, and determining whether there are relationships between their OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety. Furthermore, it also aims at examining whether there are differences in the OCS use based on their demographic variables. Eight (8) hypotheses were developed to test the relationships. The taxonomy of this study included 21 OCSs which were selected from past OCS taxonomies by Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper (1983b), and Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b). However, 11 OCSs were not represented by any item in the OCS inventory adopted by this study. Therefore, 12 items were developed by the researcher to compensate for this deficiency. The 12 items underwent the required process of evaluating the items' validity and reliability. Based on a simple random sampling, 171 participants responded to a quantitative cross-sectional web-based survey. Results demonstrated that asking for repetition, self-repair, asking for clarification, circumlocution, meaning replacement, asking for confirmation, and self-rephrasing were the most frequently used OCSs employed by Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia. The findings also showed a positively but weak relationship between the OCS use and language motivation, and a positively strong one with language anxiety. The results also revealed that the sample significantly differed in their OCS use based on gender, length of stay in Malaysia and self-perceived English oral proficiency. However, no differences were found in the sample's OCS use based on age, level of study and academic field. The most prevalent causes leading to these findings were Yemeni postgraduates' insufficient communicative competence, amotivation and language anxiety. This study contributes to increasing the awareness and knowledge of the English teachers and curriculum designers of the importance of enhancing Yemeni students' OCS use, reducing their language anxiety, and increasing their motivation.

Keywords: Oral communication strategies, Language motivation, Language anxiety, Language proficiency.

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To my late father:

You have been still there in my heart since your absence when I was a child. May ALLAH (SwT) have His Greatest Mercy on your soul.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview of the Study

While communicating orally, non-native speakers of the target language (TL) commonly encounter situations in which they fail to express an exact term or face language difficulties that hinder them from conveying their intended meanings to their interlocutors (Ellis, 1984; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 198; Bialystok, 1983; Faerch & Kasper 1983; Tarone, 1981). Therefore, in order to handle these linguistic constraints and reach a mutual understanding with their interlocutors, the non-native speakers usually attempt to bridge such communication gaps by means of paraphrasing their idea, using body language, asking their interlocutors to help provide the lacked terms, describing the function of the characteristics of the terms they would like to covey to their interlocutors, and others (Faerch & Kasper 1983; Tarone, 1981). The tools that enable the non-native speakers to cope with their oral communication breakdown, and contribute to conveying their messages to others, are called *oral communication strategies* (OCSs) (Faerch & Kasper 1983; Tarone, 1981).

The phenomenon of utilizing the OCS use becomes outstandingly obvious with the non-native speakers (Ellis, 1984; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989). This is attributed to the fact that the non-native speakers usually lack the adequate linguistic and communicative competence in the target language compared to the native speakers (Canale, 1983; Ellis, 1984; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989). Meanwhile, it is argued that there are relationships between the OCS use, language motivation, and language anxiety (Majd, 2014; Huang, 2010; Lugo, 2000; Tiono & Sylvia, 2004).

Therefore, this study attempts to investigate the use of OCSs by the Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. It also seeks to determine the relationship between the OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety, and explores the role played by the Yemeni postgraduates' demographic variables in the OCS use.

1.2 Background of the Study

It is a well-known fact that the ultimate goal of second language (L2)/ foreign language (FL) learning is communication, i.e., to enhance the learners' ability to participate in a non-native language interaction and achieve successful communication (Kormos, 2006; Campello, 2006; Naimei, 2006; Rababah & Bulut 2007). Generally, perception of English language as a world-wide tool for global communication is unquestionable, particularly in this era of the global village (Crystal, 1997; Alptekin, 2002).

In this regard, the awareness of Yemen's government and people as to the vital importance of competently communicating in English, though it is an FL in Yemen, has been increasing nationwide. As a reflection of this awareness, Yemen's Ministry of Education set a number of aims for teaching English in schools for the purpose of improving the communicative ability of Yemeni students and enabling them ultimately to communicate in English competently. Specifically, the aims of Yemen's Ministry of Education are as follows:

> *"1. To enable the students to read and write English so that they can achieve their academic research in English.*
> *2. To provide students with the skills which enable them to communicate orally.*

3. *To enable students to study abroad where English is the medium of instruction".*

(As cited in Sharyan, 2009, p.2)

As a result, a series of English textbooks were prepared by two British authors, i.e., Terry O'Neill and Peter Snow, to be the official textbooks used in Yemeni schools since 1993 (Bataineh, Bataineh, & Thabet 2011; Bauzer, 2009; Ghanim, 2009; Sharyan, 2009). Apparently, the series is designed based on the communicative approach to language teaching and learning, and attempts to promote communication in the classroom (Al-Ahdal, 2010; Bataineh, Bataineh, & Thabet 2011; Ghanim, 2009; Sharyan, 2009). However, many researchers (e.g. Al-Sohbani, 2013; Al-Ahdal, 2010; Mackie, 2009; Al-Fattah, 2009; Bauzer, 2009; Ghanim, 2009; Sharyan, 2009) are dubious as to whether the English communicative ability of Yemeni learners has been really improved, arguing that Yemeni student complete their secondary school without being able to orally communicate competently.

As a matter of fact, communication is the basic and main function of language (Hatch, 1992). Canale (1983) defines communication as "the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and nonverbal symbols, oral and written/visual modes and production and comprehension processes" (p. 4). Achieving effectiveness in communication requires communicative competence which is believed to be a crucial concept in second and foreign language learning and teaching (Hymes, 1972; Guoqiang, 2006; Naimei, 2006, Rababah & Bulut 2007). One major component of communicative competence is *strategic competence* which refers to language user's ability to get his/her meaning across successfully to the interlocutors in an interaction when problems arise in the

conversation (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). Strategic competence, in turn, is composed of mastery of various verbal and nonverbal communication strategies (Swain, 1984). It is generally argued that "the mastery of communication strategies may be called into action either to enhance the effectiveness of communication or to compensate for breakdowns in communication" (Swain, 1984, p. 189). Swain (1984) suggests that if learners are well equipped with strategic competence, they will be more successful in communication.

Generally, L2/FL users may come across various communication problems when speaking L2 due to the deficiency in their TL knowledge (Bialystok, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983b; Tarone, 1980). In order to best convey their messages and remain in the conversation until their communicative goal is achieved, L2/FL learners need to employ communication strategies (Bialystok, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983b; Tarone, 1980). "Communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983a, p. 36). OCSs support the delivery of the message in a particular context and are therefore immensely helpful to enhance a success of communication (Tarone, 1980).

Although numerous studies have been conducted to investigate the OCS use (e.g., Majd, 2014; Mei & Nathalang, 2010; Chen, 2009; Li, 2010; Lai, 2010; Huang, 2010; Qiumei, 2004; Wannaruk, 2003), there has been a lack of research that examines the OCS use by Yemeni, particularly the postgraduates. In addition, very few studies examined the role played by language motivation and language anxiety in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates. As for language anxiety, this phenomenon

becomes magnified for international students who face the challenge of operating in a second language and achieving functional fitness in the academic and social setting (Persuad 1993; Cammish 1997; Carroll 2005a). Additionally, postgraduates' language anxiety in higher education institutions was found to affect the students' ability to communicate and inhibits their academic success (Brown, 2008). On the other hand, motivation is of great importance in communication (Ward & Chang 1997; Gudykunst 1998) because without proper motivation to communicate in TL, students are not prompted to engage in TL academic discussions in class, seminars, and the like.

Therefore, this study attempted to get a deeper understanding of the OCS use by the Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia through incorporating two variables, i.e., *language motivation* and *language anxiety*, into the investigation. These two variables, as argued by Krashen's (1985) Affective Filter Hypothesis, are two of the affective factors that have an influence on the acquisition of a second language. A detailed explanation in this regard is provided in Section 1.3 discussing the Problem Statement in this chapter. The next sub-sections, however, move on to present an overview of the history of English language in Yemen and discuss the educational system there.

1.2.1 History of English Language in Yemen

With an area of nearly 528,000 km^2 and a population of more than 23 million in 2007 (Library of Congress, 2008), the Republic of Yemen is located at the southern tip of the Arabian Peninsula in Southwest Asia. It is bordered by Saudi Arabia to the north, Oman to the east, both the Gulf of Aden and the Arabian Sea to the south, and the Red

Sea to the west. Before its Reunification in 1990, Yemen was divided into two independent countries, i.e., North Yemen and South Yemen.

Arabic language is the official language and language of administration and education. There is no official second language in Yemen, though English is a compulsory subject in schools. Ali (2007) states that English language in Yemen has failed to establish a sound foothold because Yemen is a monolingual country where Arabic is used in all fields of life by all population; "even a variety of computer software of various types is easily accessible in Arabic and the knowledge of English hardly makes any good in learning anything other than English itself" (p. 39). Those who are interested in mastering English are only those who plan to study abroad or those who want to be involved in the English teaching or translation profession (Ali, 2007). Thus, ELT in Yemen has become an effortful activity due to the monolingulism of the society. Accordingly, it can be argued that English has no official status in Yemen (Al-Ahdal, 2010; Al-Fattah, 2009; Ali, 2007).

Nevertheless, a remarkable change is taking place among the younger generation who has become interested in learning English (Al-Fattah, 2009; Ali, 2007). This noticeable motivation to learn English can be attributed to some reasons such as joining the faculties of medicine or engineering, getting better jobs in the future, particularly in the multinational firms or joint ventures, or to study abroad, which enables individuals to compete in this globalized world (Ghanim, 2009; Al-Shami, 2009).

In conclusion, Yemenis' increasing awareness of the importance of English as an advantage has become obviously tangible. This is one of the reasons that motivate many Yemeni parents to send their children to private schools which teach English from Grade 1, and where English teaching and materials can be generally considered better than their counterparts at public schools. In addition, Yemeni youths are interested to study English course in private English institutions to enhance their English oral communicative competence. The following sections briefly discuss the educational system in Yemen after the Reunification in 1990 to date.

1.2.2 The Educational System in Yemen after the Reunification in 1990 to Date

Schools in Yemen are classified into public and private schools. Private schools have been founded only after the Reunification, forming in 2008 about 3.4% of the total schools in Yemen with a ratio of students to the total reached 3.6% (The Central Statistical Organization's 2009 Yearbook). Consequently, the following sections discuss ELT in public education, since the very low ratio of private education is not likely to affect the whole picture of ELT in Yemen.

1.2.2.1 ELT in Public Education in Yemen

Generally, education in Yemen is divided into two categories as follows:

a) Basic education consisting of Grade 1 (where pupils usually enroll Grade 1 at the age of six or seven years old) to Grade 9 (14 years old).
b) Secondary education with three Grades, 10, 11, and 12 (15-17 years old).

After Grade 10, students have to choose to join either the Scientific Section of the secondary education or the Literary one, both constituting Grades 11 and 12. Table

1.1 below, which is adapted from a report prepared by the Supreme Council for Education Planning (SCEP) (2007) in Yemen, shows the number of weekly periods allocated to teaching English at a rate of 45 minutes per period on an almost daily basis from 22 to 24 weeks per school year.

Table 1.1

The Number of Weekly Periods Allocated to English in Basic Education (Grades 1 to 9) and Secondary Education (Grades 10 to 12) in Yemen

	Basic Education										Secondary Education			
Grade	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		12	
											S*	L**	L	S
English Weekly Periods (45 Minutes a Period)	–	–	–	–	–	–	5	5	5	5	5	6	5	6

S*: Scientific Section
L**: Literary Section

Table 1.1 above shows that Yemeni students start learning English very late, i.e., in Grade 7, when they are already at the age of 12 or 13 at least and above. English is taught five periods a week, 45 minutes per period. Being exposed to English for the first time in Grade 7, students start learning very basic skills such as English alphabets and greetings. Table 1.1 also shows that there is no much difference with the secondary education in terms of the number of the weekly periods.

1.2.2.2 English at Yemeni Universities

Higher education in Yemen is somewhat considered new, in view of the fact that the first university was established in 1972 in North Yemen whereas South Yemen founded its first university in 1975. The medium of instruction in Yemen's universities (eight public universities and 17 private ones) is Arabic except for the

related professional faculties or departments such as medicine, pharmacy, engineering where only the textbooks are mostly in English but the tool of communication is still in Arabic (SCEP, 2007). As for ELT in Yemeni universities, the situation is also similar to that in schools where English is also taught as one requirement course at a rate of one two-hour class per week for two semesters only, and in some departments for four semesters, which is much less than the minimal requirement.

1.2.2.3 Yemen's ELT Policy

In Yemen's educational settings, the language of the school curricula is the learners' first language and the foreign one is taught as a subject only. As mentioned above, the general aim of Yemen's Education Ministry in teaching English in schools is to enable the students to competently communicate in English (as discussed in Section 1.2 above). However, numerous educational, economic and social obstacles not only prevent those aims to be achieved, but also all contribute to the weak quality of ELT in Yemen.

Among those obstacles in ELT in Yemen is the teachers' use of the Grammar-Translation Method in teaching English, which creates students who are competent in translation but face oral communication problems when they are exposed to real life situations or go abroad for studying (Al-Ahdal, 2010; Al-Sohbani, 2013; Al-Fattah, 2009; Bauzer, 2009; Al-Shami, 2009). Additionally, English teaching and learning in Yemen is very examination-oriented, as considerable focus is devoted to reading and writing skills (Al-Sohbani, 2013; Al-Ahdal, 2010; Bataineh, Bataineh, & Thabet 2011). This teaching and learning practice results in learners who can manage to pass school or national exams but are unable to master the speaking skill (Al-Ahdal, 2010;

Al-Sohbani, 2013; Al-Fattah, 2009; Bauzer, 2009; Al-Shami, 2009). The consequences of this issue become more obvious and extremely critical with those students who have a tendency to pursue their postgraduate studies in countries where English is the medium of instruction and communication.

Another obstacle faced by ELT is in the rural areas which suffer from a lack of quality as well as an adequate number of qualified teachers (Al-Ahdal, 2010; Al-Shami, 2009). All these factors have resulted in disappointing outputs represented by producing secondary education graduates who are unable to communicate effectively in English. The following section provides an evaluation of the English textbooks used in Yemen's public schools.

1.2.2.4 Evaluating English Materials in Yemen

As far as English textbooks are concerned, Yemen's Ministry of Education states that the English series are designed based on the communicative approach to language teaching and learning, and attempt to promote communication in the classroom through the color pictures, language tables and model exchanges (Al-Ahdal, 2010; Bataineh, Bataineh, & Thabet 2011; Ghanim, 2009; Sharyan, 2009). However, the SCEP's report acknowledges that the English curriculum "does not include any of the topics relevant to practical life skills" (p. 39).

The report adds that although students learn English for approximately 1342 study hours, most of them fail to be accepted in the applied sciences faculties (such as medicine, engineering, medical sciences, and pharmacology) in Yemeni universities which stipulate a good level of English proficiency for admission . Al-Ahdal (2010),

Al-Sohbani (2013), Al-Fattah (2009) and Bauzer (2009) assent to the SCEP's report by affirming that although Yemeni students learn English from Grade 7 up to the end of the secondary school, they complete their secondary education without gaining the desired ability to orally communicate in English competently. The next section moves on to discuss the problem statement of the present study.

1.3 Problem Statement

As mentioned previously, the ultimate goal of FL/L2 learning is communication (Kormos, 2006; Campello, 2006; Naimei, 2006; Rababah & Bulut, 2007). Though English is considered as a foreign language in Yemen, the increased awareness held by Yemen's government and people about its global importance has led Yemen's Ministry of Education to set its main aim in ELT as *enabling the students to competently communicate in English*. As a result, the Ministry developed English textbooks that were designed, as argued by the Ministry, to achieve this goal (Sharyan, 2009). However, Yemeni students' late formal exposure to English instruction at the age of 12 or 13 makes this goal too difficult to be achieved. In addition, it is argued that the English oral communication of Yemeni students, after receiving many years of English instruction, has hardly achieved any marked improvement (Al-Sohbani, 2013; Al-Ahdal, 2010; Azman, Bhooth, & Ismail, 2013; Mackie, 2009; Al-Fattah, 2009; Bauzer, 2009; Al-Shami, 2009; Ghanim, 2009; Sharyan, 2009; SCEP's Report, 2007).

This fact is obviously reflected in Yemeni students' inability to communicate orally satisfactorily upon being exposed to ESL real life situations or going abroad to further their study in countries where English is used as the medium of instruction and

communication (Al-Sohbani, 2013; Al-Ahdal, 2010; Al-Fattah, 2009; Bauzer, 2009; Al-Shami, 2009), as is the case with Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia.

Regrettably, Yemeni postgraduate students' inability to communicate orally successfully in English negatively affects their academic performance as the communicative ability can affect the international students' academic performance and their GPA too (Phongsuwan, 1997; Brown, 2008). That is because students, in reaction to stressful communication situation, typically resort to avoidance strategies of limiting or even refusing to participate in class, which in turn affects the academic achievement (Okorocha, 1996; Ballard & Clanchy, 1997; Louie 2005).

Additionally, students' failure to articulate and express the knowledge they have about their area of specialization in their academic contexts is highly likely to lead students to get low grades in their courses. This is not because they do not have the adequate knowledge in their specialization, but because they do not communicatively master the language that is the only channel through which the students can convey their knowledge (Al-Zubaidi & Rechards, 2010; Brown, 2008).

As discussed above, OCSs outstandingly emerge as a communication facilitator and a successful tool that can compensate for the deficiency in L2 proficiency and L2 knowledge which many individuals and learners usually face while speaking (Bialystok, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Tarone, 1980). L2 speakers can improve their communicative competence by developing an ability to use particular OCSs that can enable them to compensate for their L2 deficiency (Bialystok, 1990). Accordingly, it is important to study OCSs in order to provide L2 speakers with

proper assistance to develop their oral communication and communicative competence.

Undoubtedly, investigating the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia has a paramount importance as it can demonstrate what OCSs are used by Yemeni students to enhance their oral communication patterns and, importantly, show whether Yemeni postgraduates tend to achieve their communicative goals or prefer to avoid or reduce communication. However, a review of the relevant literature on OCSs reveals many aspects of research which have not been addressed.

Reviewing literature shows that the participants of almost all the OCS studies are undergraduates, school pupils, or L2/FL learners studying in language institutes. To the researcher's best knowledge, no empirical research has been carried out to examine the OCS use by postgraduates, particularly those studying in an ESL context. In addition, there is hardly any investigation into the OCS use by Yemeni students in particular (whether they were undergraduates or school pupils). An examination of the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates will present a new dimension for L2 users to be explored as Yemenis are from a cultural and educational background which is different from those of the participants in previous research.

Secondly, a considerable part of OCS research (e.g. Mei & Nathalang, 2010; Chen, 2009; Binhayeearong, 2009; Weerarak, 2003; Wanaruk, 2003) has been concerned with identifying definitions for OCSs, trying to develop unanimous OCS taxonomy, or examining the influence of L2 proficiency level and task type on the OCS use (Thuc & Intaraprasert, 2012). Most significantly, only very few studies devote their

orientation towards investigating variables affecting the OCS use other than language proficiency or task type, such as language anxiety or motivation (as recommended by Huang, 2010; Mei and Nathalang, 2010; Wannaruk, 2003; and Guans, 2008).

Furthermore, empirical research on the impact of demographic variables such as gender, academic fields, self-perceived oral proficiency, and staying in the ESL context, on the OCS use is still inadequate (see sub-sections 2.8.1 and 2.8.2). In addition, a review of the relevant literature shows that studies yielded inconclusive results as to the impact of the demographic variables on the use of OCSs. While Huang (2010) and Lai (2010) reported that gender hardly has any influence on the frequency of OCS, Li (2010) found that gender played a role in the OCS use. Accordingly, investigating such variables is needed in order to have a comprehensive picture of the variables affecting the OCS use as well as to contribute to reducing the gap resulting from the mixed findings of some studies (as is the case for the role of gender in the OCS use). Reducing the aforementioned gaps is among the objectives of the present study.

Thirdly, over three decades, the majority of the OCS research (e.g. Tarone, 1977; Varadi, 1980; Bialystok, 1983; Tarone and Yule, 1987; Poulisse, 1990; Poulisse, 1997; Rababah, 2001; Waanaruk, 2003; and Binhayeeraong, 2009, Majd, 2014) has employed qualitative approaches of collecting data (e.g., interviews, role plays, and concept descriptions) to elicit OCS use by the participants. The present study, however, uses a methodology which is different from those mostly used in the majority of the previous OCS research. The rationale for using a quantitative method is attributed to the fact that the nature of OCS use in qualitative tasks requires the

present study to utilize a questionnaire. That is because it is highly likely for respondents not to reflect on all the OCSs they use during performing qualitative tasks, though they could be aware of those OCSs if asked consciously by answering a questionnaire (Mei, 2009). Importantly, there are some OCSs (e.g. topic avoidance) that are too difficult to identify from the speakers' utterances and the context (Rababah, 2001). Consequently, a questionnaire can solve this problem as it results in self-reported data that give the respondents the chance to express their preferences and linguistic behaviour in using OCSs. Additionally, adopting a different method to collect data can hopefully contribute to validating the results of the previous results, particularly those related to the frequency and patterns of OCSs used by Arab learners.

In terms of the questionnaire used, this study adapts some items from Nakatani's (2006) Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) along with 12 new items developed by the researcher of the present study to fill the gap discovered in Nakatani's OCSI. This gap is represented by the absence of items in Nakatani's inventory to represent 11 OCSs out of the 20 OCSs included in the taxonomy of the present study (as explained later in Chapter Three). Based on what has been highlighted above, this study seeks to reduce those gaps by investigating the use of OCSs by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia.

Importantly, this study also attempts to reduce the gap represented by the deficiency perceived in OCS research as to the investigation of the role played by some affective factors such as language motivation and language anxiety in the OCS use by L2 speakers. Based on Krashen's (1985) Affective Filter Hypothesis, three kinds of

affective factors influence the acquisition of a second language, i.e. motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Krashen (1985) argues that effective language acquisition takes place only when affective variables are optimal in the following situations: (a) student's motivation is high; (b) the acquirer has high self-confidence and self-esteem; and (c) the level of anxiety is low.

As far as language anxiety is concerned, many researchers (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Philips, 1990, 1992; Young, 1990, 1992) believe that speaking, compared with reading, writing and listening, is considered the most anxiety-provoking one. Specifically, language anxiety becomes magnified for international students who face the challenge of operating in a foreign language and achieving functional fitness in the academic and social setting (Persuad 1993; Cammish 1997; Carroll 2005a). Importantly, language anxiety is believed to contribute to the choice of interaction strategies (Okorocha, 1996; Ballard & Clanchy 1997; Louie 2005).

In higher education institutions, postgraduates' language anxiety was found to affect the students' ability to communicate and inhibits their academic success (Brown, 2008). It causes students to feel reluctant to participate in class or seminar discussion, prefer to remain silent in class, and avoid answering questions, something which leads to frustration and irritation on the part of both students and lecturers (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997, Brown, 2008). That is because the students, though they can minimize the amount of English spoken in their social life, cannot avoid the challenge of communicating in the classroom situations, otherwise their academic achievement can be negatively affected (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997).

Thus, Yemeni postgraduates are likely to behave similar to other international postgraduates who feel scared of making mistakes in the public or losing face, prefer to avoid using English, and prefer to choose avoidance strategies of limiting or even refusing to participate in class (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997; Okorocha, 1996; Louie 2005). This use of avoidance OCSs gives the lecturers/panelists an impression that the students do not have the adequate knowledge or answers needed. Hence, the academic performance and results are highly likely to be negatively affected, and thus students become subject to get low marks.

Similarly, motivation is of great importance in choosing interaction strategies (Ward & Chang 1997; Gudykunst 1998). Students with higher levels of motivation are highly likely to do better than those with lower levels because they have reasons (motives) for engaging in the relevant activities, attend to the tasks, enjoy and persist in the activities, show desire to achieve the goal, and others (Gardner, 2006). Accordingly, without proper motivation to communicate in L2, Yemeni students are not prompted to engage in L2 academic discussions in class, seminars, and the like. Consequently, this reluctance to use L2 leads to reducing the sources of practicing L2, and hence it prevents improving L2 that basically requires much exposure to L2 interaction to be improved. As mentioned above, without mastering L2, students are highly likely to be unable to express their knowledge, and thus their academic performance and results can be found unsatisfactory.

Hence, language motivation and language anxiety are associated with oral communication among Yemeni students because high anxiety and low motivation are

likely to impede individuals producing the target language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991c). In addition, the quality and quantity of speech produced by L2 speakers and are likely to cause communicative breakdowns to L2 speakers and their interlocutors (Canale, 1983; Ellis, 1984; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989). As a result, both L2 speakers and interlocutors will resort to OCSs to solve any breakdown in their communication (Tarone, 1983; Fearch & Kasper, 1983; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989).

Based on the above discussion, examining the relationship between the OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety among Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia can have a considerable importance as such an investigation can hopefully show which among these two affective variables better enhance the OCS use and thus facilitates communication, and which factor impedes this communicative process.

Unfortunately, however, reviewing relevant literature shows that a paucity of research has been conducted to examine the relationship between OCSs and language motivation (e.g., Huang, 2010; Lugo, 2000) and language anxiety (e.g., Li, 2010; Tiono & Sylvia, 2004). Additionally, amid this dearth of research conducted on the OCS use with language motivation and anxiety, reviewing OCS literature revealed that hardly any study has ever combined these two affective variables together in one study and investigated how they worked together with the OCS use. Undoubtedly, exploring how language motivation and anxiety work together will help us know the predicative ability of language motivation and anxiety on the OCS use (i.e., how much variance in the OCS use is explained by language motivation and language anxiety) as well as it will explain which among the two variables has the strongest unique contribution to explaining the OCS use.

Consequently, and as a response to recommendations proposed by some OCS researchers (e.g., Huang, 2010; Mei & Nathalang, 2010; Wannaruk, 2003; Guans, 2008), the present study attempts to examine the relationship between the OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety. This attempt is considered as an ambitious step towards reducing this perceived gap in the OCS research represented by the inadequacy on empirical research in this regard.

In conclusion, this study is conducted within the Yemeni students' experiences and communication behaviors in the Malaysian contexts. It investigates the oral communication strategies use by the Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. It also attempts to determine the relationship between the OCS use and language motivation and language anxiety, and explores the role played by the demographic variables in the OCS use. A better understanding of the OCS use, hoped to be achieved by this study, can help develop L2 users' ability to communicate effectively and to tackle communication difficulties without facing a lot of communication breakdowns.

1.4 Research Objectives

In line with the background of the study and the problem statement discussed in the preceding section, this study is mainly designed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To identify the oral communication strategies used most by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia in their English oral communication.
2. To determine the relationship between language motivation and the oral communication strategy use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia.

3. To determine the relationship between language anxiety and the oral communication strategy use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia.
4. To examine any difference in the use of oral communication strategies among Yemeni postgraduates based on their demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, level of study [i.e., MA or PhD], academic field, length of stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived English oral proficiency)

1.5 Research Questions

Based on the objectives of this study, the following questions are addressed:

1. What types of oral communication strategies do Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia use most in their English oral communication?
2. To what extent, is there any relationship between language motivation and oral communication use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia?
3. To what extent, is there any relationship between language anxiety and oral communication use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia?
4. Is there any difference in the use of oral communication strategies among Yemeni postgraduates based on their demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, level of study [i.e., MA or PhD], academic field, length of stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived English oral proficiency)?

1.6 Research Hypotheses

In view of the above research questions, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H_0: There is no relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation.

H_1: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation.

H_0: There is no relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language anxiety.

H_2: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language anxiety.

H_0: There are no differences in the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying based on their demographic variables.

H_3: There are significant differences in the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying based on their demographic variables.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study aims to investigate the use of OCSs by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia, where English is used as a medium of instruction and communication, in the hope of making the following contributions. Hopefully, this study may raise the ESL users' awareness of the existing oral communication strategies they have, and hence they can be able to employ positive ones when facing oral communication difficulties. Specifically, the results of this study could be of a considerable help to the Yemeni students who plan to go to ESL countries (or are already there) for study and seek to develop their English oral communication skills, by raising their awareness of the OCSs already in their repertoire and encouraging them to utilize these OCSs. Likewise, this study can be of a similar help to EFL/ESL Arab learners since they share almost the same cultural and educational backgrounds with the Yemeni students.

Furthermore, the findings of the present study may suggest that teachers could adopt the OCSs in their teaching and employ the effective OCSs in class to help improve students' oral communicative proficiency. In addition, the results of this study could assist the educational policy makers in Yemen to urge them to re-think of and develop the current English curricular and teaching methodologies so that they can include teaching of OCSs in their curricular and thus contribute to the development of the students' strategic competence.

In addition, it is hoped that the findings of this study can contribute to increasing the ESL teachers' knowledge and awareness of their students' psychological aspects and needs during the process of language learning. Thus, ESL teachers can provide their students with the proper assistance that helps them to overcome their frustrations in language learning caused by language anxiety and enhance their students' success by promoting their high motivation and refining the high anxiety. Specifically, this study will help both teachers and learners to know more about language anxiety and the role of motivation in relation to the use of OCSs. It is also hoped that the findings of this study may help ESL teachers to enhance learners' success in language learning by promoting their students' high motivation and by refining their language anxiety.

Moreover, this study can also be of a great help to the Malaysian language centres and institutions offering English intensive programs to ESL Arab learners. It can help these centres and institutions understand the educational backgrounds that Yemeni and Arab students come from, and provide them with the necessary suggestions needed to improve their learners' strategic competence.

Importantly, it is hoped that this study can serve as a base for future studies of OCSs in terms of variables such as language motivation, language anxiety, gender, age, period of staying in L2 culture, academic field, and self-perceived English oral proficiency. It is important not only to investigate OCSs themselves, but also to examine them in relation to some other factors that can affect the OCS use. Reviewing literature shows that very few studies have combined all these seven variables together and investigated their influence on the OCS use to get a comprehensive picture of the OCS use, which was the objective that the present study attempted to achieve. Additionally, the results of this study can be of great significance in terms of validating the results of the previous results, particularly those related to the frequency and patterns of OCSs used by Arab learners.

Generally, it is hoped that a thorough understanding OCSs can contribute to developing L2 users' ability to communicate effectively and to tackle communication difficulties without facing communication breakdowns. If L2 users' strategic competence could be enhanced through the use of OCSs, they could convey their communicative goals successfully and thus have a better communication.

1.8 Scope of the Study

This study attempts to explore the use of oral communication strategies by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia, and determine whether there is a relationship between OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety. This implies that students of other nationalities as well as undergraduate students studying in Malaysia

are not included in this study. Consequently, the findings obtained from this study could not be generalized to undergraduates nor to students of other nationals.

Furthermore, the OCSs under investigation are 21 as shown by the taxonomy of the present study, and serve as the dependent variable of this study. As for language motivation, Gardner's (1985) motivation construct, included in his Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) and conceptualized to subsume three components, *motivational intensity, desire to learn the language,* and an *attitude towards the act of learning the language*, is used in this study as the first dependent variable. Concerning language anxiety, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's (1986) concept of foreign language anxiety works as the second independent variables of the present study.

Besides, this research explores the types of OCSs used by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia in relation to only six demographic variables, i.e., gender, age, level of study (MA and PhD), academic field, and length of stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived English oral proficiency. For further confirmation, other variables such as language learning strategies, language learning beliefs, or willingness to communicate are unfortunately beyond the interest of the present study due to research constraints.

Additionally, this study adopted a quantitative cross-sectional research design, where a web-based survey was the main tool for collecting data. The theoretical framework of this research was examined based on data collected by using a simple random sampling from Yemeni postgraduates studying at Malaysian universities, i.e., Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Universiti

Malaya (UM), and Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM), Universiti Teknologi Mara (UiTM), which have the largest number of Yemeni postgraduates. As a result, the findings obtained from this study could not be generalized to Yemeni postgraduates studying in countries other than Malaysia.

1.9 Definitions of Terms

The following terms are used throughout this research. They are defined for the purpose of explaining how they are employed by the present research.

Communicative Competence

Proposed by Hymes (1972), communicative competence stresses the importance of the social and cultural appropriateness of the utterances to the setting in which they occur. In Hymes' (1972) view, "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (p. 45).

Strategic Competence

It is a major component of the communicative competence. It refers to the individual's ability to use communication strategies to compensate for a limited or imperfect knowledge of rules or the interference of factors such as fatigue, distraction or inattention (Canale & Swain, 1983).

Oral Communication Strategies (OCSs)

Based on the psycholinguistic approach, "OCSs are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983a, p. 36). The interactional approach,

however, defines OCSs as "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not meet to be shared" (Tarone, 1980, p. 420).

Language Motivation

Gardner and Tremblay (1994) define language motivation as a combination of efforts paired with desire to achieve the goal of mastering the language. Language motivation in the current research refers to Yemeni postgraduates' efforts and desire to speak and practice English in their academic and social contexts in Malaysia, and how this language motivation is associated with their choice of OCSs.

Language Anxiety

Language anxiety refers to "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening and learning" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, p. 284). The present study attempts to measure how Yemeni postgraduates' feelings of tension and apprehension when using English affect their OCS use.

Second Language (L2)

According to Ellis (1994), a non-native speaker who speaks a second language lives in a context where the second language is the primary means of communication. Thus, English is considered as L2 for Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia as it is for them the primary tool of communication.

English as a Second Language (ESL)

It refers to the contexts in which students learning English have ready-made contexts for communication beyond classroom (Brown, 2001: 116) (e.g. learning English in the USA).

Foreign Language (FL)

Based on Ellis' (1994) definition of SL, a non-native speaker who speaks a foreign language lives in a context where the foreign language is not the primary means of communication.

English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

It refers to the contexts in which students learning English do not have ready-made contexts for communication beyond classroom (Brown, 2001, p. 116) (e.g. learning English in Yemen).

Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

It refers to "the subconscious or conscious processes by which a language other than the mother tongue is learned in a natural or tutored setting" (Ellis, 1994, p. 6). It covers the development of phonology, lexis, grammar, morphology, and programmatic knowledge (Ellis, 1994).

1.10 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into five chapters as follows:

Chapter One (i.e., Introduction) presents the context of this study and provides the justifications for conducting it. It includes a background of the study which sheds

light on the need for this research to be carried out, followed by a description of the educational system in Yemen. The problem statement, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study as well as definitions of related terms are also provided in this chapter.

Chapter Two (i.e., Literature Review) provides the theoretical background on which research on communication has been based. It is divided into four main sections. The first section discusses the concept of communication strategies, where a number of taxonomies of communication strategies are analyzed. The second section deals with the OCSs related studies, whereas the third and fourth sections provide the theoretical frameworks of language motivation and language anxiety. Finally, based on the literature reviewed, the theoretical framework of the study is drawn and the hypotheses are developed to be tested.

Chapter Three (i.e., Research Methodology) describes the methods and techniques adopted in the present study, delineates the research design, and describes the sample size and the instruments used. It also explains the procedures taken to develop the items needed in the OCS measure and reports the results of the pilot study. Moreover, Chapter Three also discusses the data collection procedures, and describes the processes of preparing the data obtained from the main study which includes screening the data, performing preliminary analysis to check the missing data, test the normality, and assess the outliers, and examining the reliability of the instrument used. This chapter also sheds light on the techniques of data analysis.

Chapter Four (i.e., Research Findings and Discussion) reports the findings obtained by the current study as it presents an identification of the OCSs used most by Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia followed by an analysis of the relationships between the OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety. Additionally, it examines the differences in the OCS use based on the demographic variables of the respondents. Chapter Four reports the results of the data analysis together with a detailed discussion and explanations of the possible causes and reasons that led to the findings obtained by the current research.

Chapter Five (i.e., Conclusions and Recommendations) recapitulates the study in general and highlight the contribution of the present study to the existing literature. It also provides implications for teaching, reviews the limitations of the study, and provides some suggestions for future research works.

1.11 Summary of Chapter One

This chapter has dealt with the background of the study, provided an overview of Yemen's ELT, and shed light on the theoretical background and the context of the investigation. It also discussed the problem statement and set the objectives of the study followed by the research questions as well as significance of the research. Lastly, definitions of key terms and organization of the thesis were provided. The next chapter will provide the theoretical framework of the study and review the OCSs, motivation and anxiety related studies.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter first provides the theoretical background on which research on communication has been based. It is divided into four main sections. The first section discusses the concept of communication strategies, where a number of taxonomies of communication strategies are analyzed, specifically those by Tarone (1977), Bialystok (1983), Faerch and Kasper (1983a) and Dornyei and Scott (1997). The second section deals with the OCSs related studies, whereas the third and fourth sections provide the theoretical frameworks of language motivation and language anxiety respectively being the two independent variables whose relationships with the OCS use are to be investigated by the present study. Finally, based on the literature reviewed, the theoretical framework of the study was drawn and the hypotheses were developed to be tested.

2.2 Language and Communication

Littlewood (1992) argues that although language and communication are very closely related, they are not the same phenomenon. As far as language is concerned, many researchers and scholars have proposed a number of definitions for language. Linguistically, Merriam-Webster's Dictionary defines language as "a systematic means of *communicating* ideas or feelings by the use of conventionalized signs, sounds, gestures, or marks having understood meanings" (http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/language). Finocchiaro (1964), on the other hand, defines language "as system of arbitrary, vocal symbols which permit all people in a given

culture or other people who have learned the system of that culture, to *communicate* or to interact" (cited in Brown, 2000). In a simpler definition, Hatch (1992) defines it as a system of arbitrary symbols used for human *communication*. Obviously, these definitions meet at a common function of the language, that is, a tool for communication.

But this never means that language is the only tool whereby people communicate. Communication is not just a matter of language, however. Sometimes certain messages can be conveyed amongst people without using language, but through a number of techniques such as facial expression, gestures, clapping, sighs, eye contact, body language and other nonverbal signals or non-verbal communication. Interestingly, the same nonverbal signal can sometimes have different meanings based on the situation and the background knowledge shared among the interlocutors. This causes Littlewood (1992) to affirm that language and communication are very closely related but they are not the same phenomenon. The most significant function of language is to facilitate communication between people.

2.3 Communication: Its Nature and Features

Many SLA scholars have attempted to define communication. Communication, as Halliday (1978) explains, is more than just an exchange of words between participants; rather, it is a "...sociological encounter" (p. 139), and through this exchange of meanings achieved during the communication process, social reality is "created, maintained and modified" (p. 169). More precisely, communication is a process whereby the sender of the message uses verbal and non-verbal symbols to convey his/her messages to receivers in such a way that similar meanings are

comprehended by all. Ellis and Beattie (1986) state that "communication occurs when one organism (transmitter) encodes information into a signal which passes to another organism (receiver) which decodes the signal and is capable of responding appropriately" (p. 3). Canale (1983) defines communication as "the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, oral and written/visual modes and production and comprehension processes" (p. 4).

Similarly, Wells (1981) and Candlin (1980) affirm that communication involves continuous negotiation and evaluation of meaning on the part of the participants. Also, Riley (1985) defines communication as a "process whereby we create, negotiate, and interpret meaning" (p. 1). A similar definition is proposed by Palmer (1978) who defines communication as "a reduction of uncertainty" on behalf of the interlocutors. This means that the level of uncertainty amongst participants can be lowered to a minimal level with the help of further negotiation and exchange of information. Poulisse (1997) identifies two major principles of communication, i.e., "the principle of clarity and the principle of economy .... The principle of clarity requires speakers to produce a clear, intelligible message and the principle of economy requires them to do this with the least possible expenditure of effort" (pp. 50-51).

Generally, the definitions emphasize the negotiation of meaning between the interlocutors that usually results in reducing the level of unclarity in the meaning between the sender and the receiver. The sender's message is likely to be redundant or unclear and the role of the receiver in such a case is to get the intended meaning.

During the communication process, senders usually apply these two fundamental principles, namely, clarity and economy, as they try to transmit clear messages with the least cost and effort (economy) (Poulisse, 1997).

This study, however, adopts Canale's (1983) definition of communication as "the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and nonverbal symbols, oral and written/visual modes and production and comprehension processes." (p. 4). This definition deals with two important points:

1. It stresses the inherent nature of communication (i.e. exchange and negotiation of information), which actually constitutes a broad part of the OCS research
2. It refers to the nonverbal aspect as a possible tool of communication, which is considered a part of communication strategies as will be discussed later on.

Since meaning is central to communication, thus better communication leads to better understanding. However, sometimes the effective transmission of the intended meaning is interrupted by some gaps, linguistic or lexical, in the knowledge of the senders and receivers. Thus, in order to fill this unexpected gap and guarantee a successful transmission of the meaning, the interlocutors resort to some communication strategies to get their message across successfully and avoid any frustration that may occur among interlocutors due to a communication breakdown. The next section provides a discussion of the relationship between communication and L2 learning.

2.4 Communication and Second Language Learning (SLL)

Kormos (2006) argues that the most frequent objective in learning L2 is the ability to speak the language, i.e., to competently communicate with native speakers of the language. However, no discussion about communication and language learning is complete without referring to the communicative competence. Many SLA researchers believe the communicative competence is a crucial concept in L2 learning and teaching. Naimei (2006) argues that "if the purpose of language learning is communication, then improving learners' communicative competence becomes an overall goal in language teaching" (p.10). The same argument is supported by Rababah and Bulut, (2007) who affirm that the main goal of L2 teaching is to develop learners' communicative competence. Thus, the major concern in L2 teaching has become how to achieve this goal. The following sections provide a quick glance at the emergence of the communicative competence notion, what it means and its components.

2.4.1 Chomsky's Competence and Performance

Since its first emergence in the late 1960s and early 1970s, communicative competence has been considered as one of the basic keywords in English language teaching as well as at the heart of any theoretical discussion about SLA, and has become a predominant model of language ability (Guoqiange, 2006; Rababah & Bulut 2007; Ohno 2002).

Historically, the notion of communicative competence was originally derived from Chomsky's (1965) distinction between *competence* and *performance* as language behaviour, the distinction which is, in turn, said to be inspired by Ferdinand de

Saussure's (1916) distinction between *langue* and *parole*. By *competence*, Chomsky refers to one's underlying knowledge of the system of a language, its grammatical rules, vocabulary and all the other components of a language and how those components work together. Performance, on the other hand deals with the concrete or observable representation of competence, i.e., the actual production whether speaking or writing, or the comprehension whether listening or reading (Brown, 1987, p.2). However, this Chomskyan concept of linguistic competence was disputed by many scholars, leading to the emergence of the communicative competence.

2.4.2 Communicative Competence

The concept *communicative competence* was first proposed by Hymes (1967, 1972) and Campbell and Wales (1970) as a response as well as a further development to the limitations perceived in Chomsky's competence / performance model of language that appeared too narrow to describe the actual language behavior (Canale & Swain, 1980). Modifying the Chomskyan notion, Campbell and Wales (1970) proposed that "communication competence is the capability or ability to produce and understand utterances which are not so much grammatical but appropriate in the context in which they are used" (p.241).

Hymes (1967, 1972), on the other hand, observed that Chomsky's linguistic competence is concerned about knowledge of language, a concept which is appropriate to describe a child's grammar at the age of three or four and did not account sufficiently for the social and functional rules of language (Brown 1987: 198). In other words, Hymes believes that a speaker can produce sentences grammatically correct but completely inappropriate. Therefore, Hymes (1972)

proposed his communicative competence model which included not only the ability to form correct sentences but also the ability to use them at appropriate times. As far as communication is concerned, Hymes (1972) affirms that communication must be embedded in the model of competence. He believes that utterances should be socially acceptable and appropriate to the setting they occur in.

Since 1970s, Hymes' concept of communicative competence has been considerably expanded and a number of theoretical frameworks of competencies have been proposed, the most influential of which were those proposed by Canale and Swain (1980), which was later modified by Canale (1983), and Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1995). The next sub-section reviews these two models of communicative competence.

2.4.2.1 Models of Communicative Competence

This section discusses some proposed models of communicative competence by Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983) and Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1995). It also highlights how these models conceptualize the communication strategies, the focus of the current research.

2.4.2.1.1 Canale and Swain's (1980) Model of Communicative Competence

There has been a considerable controversy regarding what the notion of communicative competence actually comprises and whether all that learners have to do is to be able to talk (Guoqiang, 2006). Canale's and Swain's (1980) model was the first attempt and a widely cited proposal to identify the components of communicative competence. Developing Hymes' model of communicative competence, Canale and

Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), as shown below in Figure 2.1, identified four categories of the communicative competence, i.e., grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. According to Canale (1983), communicative competence deals with "the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication" (p. 5).

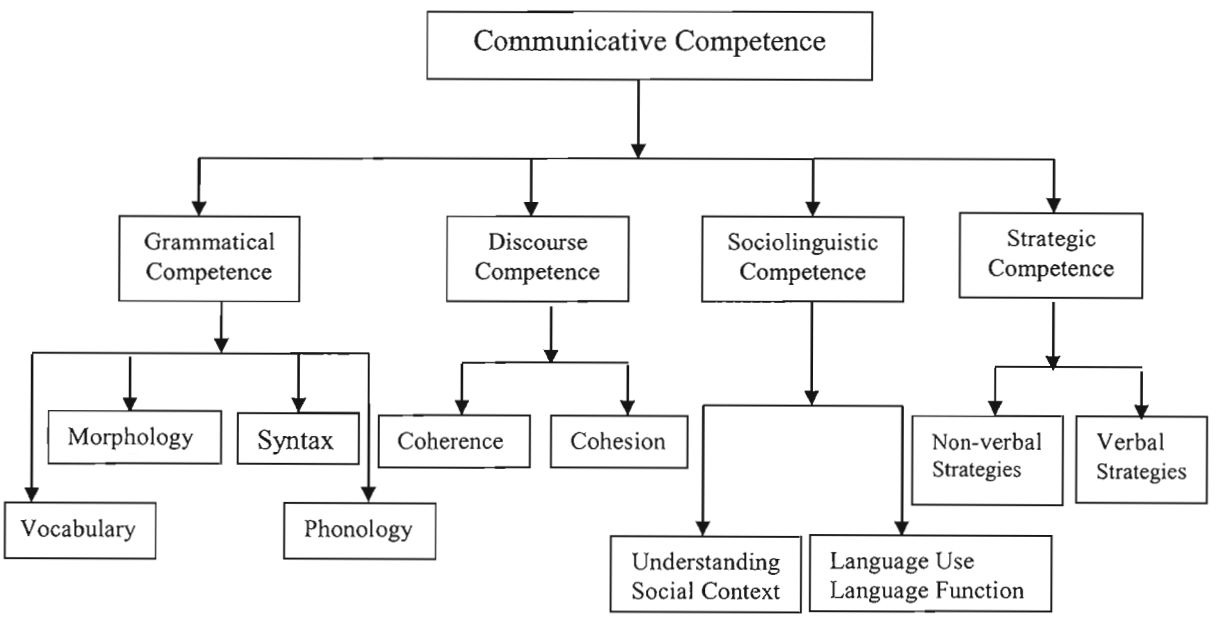


Figure 2.1. Canale's (1983) modification of Canale's and Swain's (1980) model of communicative competence. Adopted from Wang (2008), p. 24.

The category of communicative competence under focus by the present study is *strategic competence* being related to the use of communication strategies, the main focus of the current research. Canale and Swain (1980) define strategic competence as "the verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or due to insufficient competence" (p. 30). It refers to the language user's ability to cope with the communication problems they encounter while speaking the target language caused by the imperfect knowledge of a vocabulary item or a grammatical item, and

others. Thus, in order to solve problems and reduce difficulties encountered during the transmission of information, a language user resorts to a set of communication strategies such as paraphrasing, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing (Tarone & Yule, 1987).

2.4.2.1.1 Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's (1995) Model of Communicative Competence

In addition to Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's model of communicative competence, Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1995) also proposed a model of communicative competence. They presented their model as a pyramid that enclosed a circle and also surrounded by another circle as shown in Figure 2.2 below. The figure contains five competences, i.e., discourse competence, sociocultural competence, actional competence, linguistic competence, and strategic competence. Discourse competence is placed in the circle within the pyramid, whereas three competences, i.e., sociocultural competence, actional competence, linguistic competence, lie at three corners of the triangle. The circle surrounding the pyramid represents strategic competence.

Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's (1995) model perceives the discourse component as the center where sociocultural, actional, and linguistic competencies come together and form the discourse. The strategic competence is conceptualized by the model as the "ever-present, potentially usable inventory of skills that allows a strategically competent speaker to negotiate messages and resolve problems or to compensate for deficiencies in any of the other underlying competencies" (p. 9).

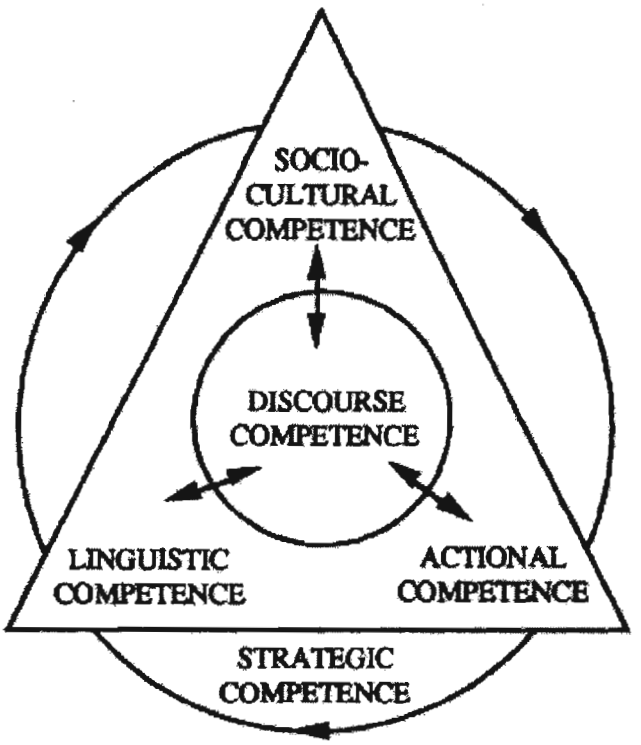


Figure 2.2 Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's (1995) model of communicative competence. Adopted from Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1995).

Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's (1995) conceptualize strategic competence as "knowledge of communication strategies and how to use them" (p. 26). Although Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's (1995) follow Canale and Swain's (1980) conceptualization of strategic competence, the current research adopts Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell's framework because it limits the focus of strategic competence to OCSs and also views OCSs most relevant to communicative language use. The following part, thus, moves on to discuss the nature of communication strategies, the main concern of the present study.

2.5 Oral Communication Strategies (OCSs)

Over the past three decades, many terms have been used by SLA researchers to refer to communication strategies (e.g., Varadi, 1980: *communicational strategies*, Faerch and Kasper, 1983a: *communication strategies*, Corder, 1983: *communicative strategies*, and Poulisse, 1990): *compensatory strategies*). Simply speaking, OCSs are defined as the means employed by language learners to get their meaning across when they face with some difficulties (Corder 1981; Faerch & Kasper, 1983). The following example from Faerch and Kasper (1983) explains how OCSs were used by a learner to express the word *shy* (NS: native speaker, L: learner):

L : *Oh*, (giggles). *I'm very oh - what do you call it - you know* (laughs) - *I get a red in my head* (giggles).

NS : *Yer shy.*

L : *Shy yer* (giggles) (p. 233).

In this conversation, the learner faced some difficulty due to his vocabulary lack of the word *shy*. Therefore, he solved this communication problem by resorting to some strategy represented by his explanation of the unknown word shy (*I get red in my head*) to make his interlocutor get his point. The next sub-section provides a briefly historical overview of the theoretical origin of OCSs.

2.5.1 OCSs: A Historical Overview

The first appearance of the term *communication strategies* was in Selinker's (1972) outstanding paper *Interlanguage*. In this paper, Selinker used the term *strategies of second language communication* to refer to the means resorted to by EFL/ESL learners to cope with the difficulties they encounter while communicating when their

linguistic abilities are inadequate. Selinker regards those strategies as one of the five processes central to L2 learning (p. 229), but he does not explain thoroughly the classification or nature of these strategies.

Varadi's (1973) talk, published only in 1980, given at a small European conference is considered as the first systematic explanation of strategic language behaviour. In his talk, Varadi refers to what he calls *message adjustment* whereby he means that L2 learners replace the optimal meaning (namely, the actual meaning) with the adjusted meaning (namely, what is actually said by the learner when s/he encounters a communication problem). Varadi (1973,1980) conducts a small-scale experiment on 18 Hungarian English language learners in order to examine their adjustment techniques. The findings of his study show a general validity of the theoretical aspect of the notion of OCSs.

Tarone's (1977) study was one of first empirical researches succeeding Varadi's first experiment. Tarone's definition and taxonomy of OCSs were based on data obtained from nine participants. Her taxonomy is still considered the most significant in OCSs area as most of the successive taxonomies were proposed based on her taxonomy.

The year 1987 witnessed a significant event in the history of OCSs when the University of Nijmegen sponsored a series of extensive empirical studies called the *Nijmegen Project* which was regarded as the most comprehensive research of OCSs carried out by a group of researchers (e. g., Poulisse, 1987, 1990, 1993; Poulisse & Schils, 1989; Kellerman et al.,1990) at the University of Nijmegen (Poulisse, 1993, p.165). This project aimed to study the compensatory strategies where the focus was

to explore the proficiency effect on the OCSs use, the relationship between communication strategy use in L1 and L2, and the effectiveness of various OCS types (Poulisse, 1990, 1993).

Although OCS research has been carried out since the 1980s and contributed greatly to OCS theories, much of this research has been mainly concerned with defining, identifying and classifying OCSs and witnessed controversies over definitions, taxonomies, and other issues. The following section will discuss some of the important definitions of OCSs as well as the dominants taxonomies.

2.5.2 Definitions of OCSs Employed by L2 Speakers

Oral communication breakdowns are not confined only to L2 learners, but they can also occur anytime with native speakers of the language (Kellerman, 1991; Yule & Tarone, 1990). Therefore, it is common for both native and non-native speakers and listeners use OCSs to face such communication gaps (Ellis, 1984; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989). As Wagner and Firth (1997) affirm that OCSs are considered as "a very prominent element in speech production and therefore an important element in natural discourse" (p. 342). However, due to their linguistic constraints, L2 learners are highly likely to face much more communication difficulties and breakdowns than L1 users who usually have a better command of their native language while communicating with others. As a result, L2 learners' resort more frequently to use OCSs than L1 users, a fact acknowledged by Corder (1983) who states that "it is now fairly clear that all language users adopt strategies to convey their meaning... but we are only able more or less readily to perceive these when the speaker is not a native speaker" (p. 15).

It may be difficult to find a particular definition of OCSs agreed upon by OCSs researchers. Since the late 1970s, many definitions of OCSs employed by L2 learners have been proposed for the OCSs of second language learners. Table 2.1 below shows some extracts of the most prominent definitions the OCSs.

Table 2.1

Definitions of Oral Communication Strategies

Author(s)	OCS Definition
1. Tarone (1977)	"Conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when languages structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought" (p. 195).
2. Tarone (1980)	"A mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not meet to be shared" (p. 420).
3. Tarone (1981)	"Learners' attempt to bridge the gap between their linguistic competence in the target language and that of the target language interlocutors" (p. 288).
4. Tarone (1983)	OCSs "are used to compensate for some lack in the linguistic system, and focus on exploring alternate ways of using what one does know for the transmission of a message"(p.64).
5. Corder (1981)	"They are a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty" (p. 103).
6. Faerch & Kasper (1983a)	"OCSs are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (p. 36).
7. Bialystok (1983)	"All attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication. Should learning result from the exercise, the strategy has also functioned as a learning strategy, but there is no inherent feature of the strategy itself which can determine which of these roles it will serve." (p. 102-103).
8. Poulisse (1990)	"Compensatory strategies are strategies which a language user employs in order to achieve his intended meaning on becoming aware of problems arising during the planning phase of an utterance due to his own linguistic shortcomings." (p. 88).
9. Dornyei and Scott (1997)	OCSs are "potentially intentional attempts to cope with any language-related problems of which the speaker is aware during the course of communication." (p. 179).
10. Brown (1987)	"The conscious employment by verbal or non-verbal mechanisms for communicating an idea when precise linguistic forms are for some reasons not available to the learner at that point in communication." (p. 180)
11. Smith (2003: p.35)	OCSs are "discourse management tools and devices of conversation maintenance employed to avoid communication breakdown". (p. 35)

As clearly shown in the table above, most definitions agree upon a common ground that when L2 speakers face difficulties in their communication, they resort to OCSs to solve and overcome these difficulties. In addition, as Bialystok (1990) suggests, the definitions converge on three features of OCSs:

a) Problematicity which refers to the fact that OCSs are employed only when a speaker faces that a problem which may interrupt communication, a feature that is agreed upon by almost all definitions.

b) Consciousness of OCS use, as referred to in the definitions by Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper's (1983a), and Brown's (1987), means that speakers are aware when they use OCSs during their communication process to convey and interpret a comprehensive and meaningful message. Bialystok (1990) argues that the feature of consciousness is implied in all the definitions proposed. However, she excludes the element of consciousness in defining communication strategies because she claims that no evidence supports the belief that L2 learners, when they use communication strategies, realize that they have done so.

c) Intentionality, firstly proposed by Bialystok (1990) as a third element included in the nature of OCSs, refers to the learner's control over a repertoire of strategies so that a specific one is chosen from a group of options and intentionally used in order to achieve particular effects. According to Bialystok (1990), speakers have choices when they communicate; they may choose *truck* or *lorry* to refer to the same item.

Yet, Bialystok (1990) concludes that "the intentionality of communication strategies is questionable." (p. 5).

The current study, however, adopts the two definitions presented by Tarone (1980) and Faerch and Kasper (1983) due to the fact that both definitions integrate with each other in covering both the approaches to defining OCSs, i.e., the psycholinguistic and interactional, which both are the focus of this study. While Tarone's (1980) definition puts an emphasis on the interactional aspect of the OCSs as a "mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning", Faerch and Kasper's (1983) focuses on the psycholinguistic aspect of OCSs as "conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal." To better understand the definition of OCSs, the following sections discuss these theoretical approaches to OCSs.

2.5.3 Theoretical Approaches to Oral Communication Strategies

There are two broad theoretical approaches to communication strategies: the first is the psycholinguistic approach (also called intra-actional or intra-individual), and the second is the interactional approach (also called inter-individual).

2.5.3.1 The Psycholinguistic Approach

Psycholinguistics is concerned with those processes of transforming the speakers' intentions into signals and interpreting these signals by the hearers (Osgood & Sebeok, 1976). In other words, psycholinguistics deals with "human communication which is most directly concerned with the processes of encoding and decoding" (Osgood & Sebeok, 1976:4). Simply, it studies how we manage to speak and

understand the language (Levelt, 2014). Thus, OCSs can be psycholinguistically conceptualized as mental plans through which the speaker conveys his communicative message to the hearer.

The psycholinguistic approach is illustrated by Faerch and Kasper (1983) who conceive OCSs as mental plans within a speech production framework. Faerch and Kasper consider OCSs as underlying processes taking place in the individual's mind and importantly do not have to engage the interlocutor for resolution. While the early OCS research restricted the concept of OCSs to a problem-solving activity, Faerch and Kasper's definition of OCSs (see Table 2.1) relates the concept to the speaker experiencing problems in the planning and execution of speech production. The definition envisages OCSs as mental plans executed by L2 speakers in response to an internal signal of an imminent problem, a kind of self-help that does not have to involve the interlocutor's contribution for a resolution (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p.36). This implies that the speakers can employ OCSs without signaling to their interlocutors that they are facing a communication problem, and accordingly a repair on the part of the interlocutor is not necessary for the identification of an OCS.

2.5.3.2 The Interactional Approach

Ellis (1999) defines interaction as "the social behavior that occurs when one person communicates with another" (p.1). This implies that interaction is a mutual activity that involves at least two individuals and causes mutual understanding. Long (1983) argues that the L2 interlocutors' interaction aiming to facilitate their comprehension creates a 'modified input' which can explain linguistic forms that learners find

difficult to understand. Thus, OCSs can be interactionally perceived as a mutual negotiation of meaning made by the interlocutors to facilitate their comprehension.

Tarone (1980) defines OCSs from an interactional approach as "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not meet to be shared." (p. 420). Tarone believes "communication strategies are seen as tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal" (1980, p.420). Generally, Tarone's interactional perspective views OCSs as cooperative in nature. That is, the different linguistic codes of the interlocutors entail a negotiation of the message as intended by one interlocutor and perceived by the other. Both interlocutors are aware of the existence of a communication problem, and as a result they attempt to solve this problem on a cooperative basis.

Yule and Tarone (1997) argue that adopting the psycholinguistic approach on internal cognitive processes has resulted in no role for interlocutors' effects in more recent analytic frameworks. Yule and Tarone emphasize that the presence of an addressee creates a different context for "interactive strategies" such as appeal for assistance and mime. As a result, it is important not only to explore OCSs from a psycholinguistic perspective but also from an interactional perspective.

Therefore, the present study aims to examine the OCSs both from the psycholinguistic perspective that does not results in the interlocutor's interference as well as from the interactional perspective that focuses on how both interlocutors can achieve a mutual

understanding. The next part highlights the major influential taxonomies proposed for the OCSs.

2.5.4 Major Taxonomies of OCSs

A number of OCS taxonomies have been developed and organized based on certain criteria. The next sub-sections discuss four taxonomies on which most of the OCS research is based.

2.5.4.1 Tarone's (1977) Taxonomy of OCSs

One of the earliest taxonomies to describe OCSs was that of Tarone (1977), which served as a basis for subsequent studies of OCSs, resulting in proposing further taxonomies. Table 2.2 presents this taxonomy.

Table 2.2

Tarone's (1977) Taxonomy of OCSs

OCSs		
1. Paraphrase	**2. Conscious Transfer**	**3. Avoidance**
- Approximation - Word Coinage - Circumlocution	- Literal Translation - Language Switch - Appeal For Assistance - Mime	- Topic Avoidance - Message Abandonment

Tarone's (1977) taxonomy was developed based on earlier work on interlanguage production carried out by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976) which investigated the performance of nine participants from three different backgrounds with an intermediate level of proficiency. Participants had to describe two simple drawings

and a complex illustration in their native language and then in English. The OCSs in the taxonomy were described based on the analysis of the participants' attempts to describe a number of objects and events depicted. The OCSs reflect the participants' attempts to get their messages across and make themselves understood to their interlocutors. Tarone's taxonomy includes three main categories and sub-categories as shown in Table 2.2 above. In Table 2.3 below, each strategy is defined and examples presented.

Table 2.3

Descriptions of the OCSs in Tarone's (1977) Taxonomy (as Cited in Tarone, 1983, pp. 62-63)

	1. Paraphrase
i. Approximation	(e.g. *animal* for *elephant*). "The use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure which the learner knows it is not correct but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (e .g . *pipe* for *water pipe*)".
ii. Word Coinage	(e .g .*airball* for *balloon*). The "learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept".
iii. Circumlocution	"The learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language (TL) item or structure. (e.g. *She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of.*)".
	2. Borrowing/Conscious Transfer
i. Literal Translation:	(e.g. *I lost my way* for *I got lost*). The "learner translates word for word from the native language (e .g. *He invites him to drink* for *They toast one another*)".
ii. Language Switch:	"The learner uses the native language (NL) term without bothering to translate (e.g. *tirtil* for *caterpillars*)".
iii. Appeal for Assistance	"The learner asks for the correct term (e.g. *What is this? What called?*)".
iv. Mime	"The learner uses non-verbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action (e.g. clapping one's hands to illustrate *applause*".
	3. Avoidance
i. Topic Avoidance	"The learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the TL item or structure is not known".
ii. Message Abandonment	"The learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid-utterance".

Tarone's (1977) taxonomy contains nine OCSs that can be considered as the most obvious OCSs in L2 speakers' interaction. However, the present study believes that those nine strategies, though significant, are not comprehensive. That is because L2 speakers can use more than these nine OCSs as will be explained later with the other taxonomies. Yet, the current research will adopt these nine OCSs due to its significance and frequent occurrence in L2 communication.

2.5.4.2 Bialystok's (1983) Taxonomy of Oral Communication Strategies

Influenced by Tarone's taxonomy, Bialystok (1983) classified OCSs into three major categories: LI-based strategies, L2-based strategies and paralinguistic strategies, based on the source of information used to solve the communication problem as shown below in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4

Bialystok's (1983) Taxonomy of OCSs

OCSs		
L1- based Strategies	**2. Paralinguistic Strategies**	**3. L2- Based Strategies**
- Language Switch -Foreignizing -Transliteration	-Gesture -Mime	-Semantic Contiguity (Tarone's: Approximation) -Description (Circumlocution) -Word Coinage

Comparing Tarone's (1977) and Bialystok's taxonomies clearly shows that the communication strategies identified in Bialystok's are similar to those of Tarone (1977), but with four differences. First, unlike Tarone who just listed OCSs in her taxonomy, Bialystok classified OCSs based on the source of information into two

categories as L1- based strategies and L2- based strategies category. Second, Bialystok excluded the avoidance strategies with its sub-categories (Topic avoidance, Message abandonment) included in Tarone's taxonomy.

Third, Bialystok added a new OCS under the L1- based strategies category, namely, *foreignizing* defined as the creation of non-existent or inappropriate target language items "by applying L2 morphology and/or phonology to LI lexical items" (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980: 10). For instance, the English word *pressure* is pronounced with a French accent while the correct French word is *pression*. Foreignizing is used when some similarities occur between L1 and L2 particularly at the lexical level (like English and French), where L2 morphology and/or phonology can be applied to a similar lexical item in L1

Bialystok also added *gesture* as an independent strategy which is in fact equivalent to Tarone's *mime*, though *mime* is also there in Bialystok's proposed taxonomy. Finally, Bialystok used different terminologies to refer to the same OCSs in Tarone's taxonomy, where she used *transliteration* for *literal translation* in Tarone's taxonomy, *semantic contiguity* for *approximation*, and *description* for *circumlocution*.

Thus, based on the above comparison between Tarone's (1977) and Bialystok's (1983) taxonomies, it can be claimed that Bialystok's taxonomy does not present any new OCSs except *foreignizing*. As mentioned above, this strategy is utilized when morphological and/or phonological similarities are found between L1 and L2 However, such similarities are hardly found between Arabic (the L1 of the respondents involved in the present study) and English due to the totally different

nature of Arabic and English. As a result, it would be useless to include *foreignizing* in the taxonomy selected for the present study. This implies that Bialystok's (1983) taxonomy will be excluded when selecting the OCSs of the present studies.

2.5.4.3 Faerch and Kasper's (1983) Taxonomy of OCSs

Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) taxonomy of OCSs is influenced by two factors, i.e. Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) model of speech production and Corder's (1983) framework of OCSs. With respect to the former, Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) model of speech production suggests that there are two phases involved in speech production, i.e., the planning phase and the execution phase. The planning phase produces a plan that is followed by the execution phase whose functions is to achieve the intended communicative goal. Thus, communication strategies can be regarded as a constituent of the planning phase. When encountering any problem, L2 speakers adopt either the avoidance behaviour (resorting to avoidance strategies), or the achievement behavior (using achievement strategies).

Concerning the second factor influencing Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) taxonomy, i.e., Corder's framework of OCSs presented in Table 2.5 below , the major concept in Faerch and Kasper's (1983) taxonomy remains the same as it is in Corder's framework. Corder's (1983) taxonomy suggests that L2 speakers, while facing a communication problem, have two choices: either to adapt their message to their linguistic resources by using *message adjustment strategies (*i.e., risk avoidance strategies) or to increase their linguistic resources to achieve their communicative goals by using *resource expansion strategies.*

Table 2.5

Corder's OCS Taxonomy (1983, p.17)

OCSs	
Message Adjustment (Risk-Avoidance Strategies)	**Resource Expansion Strategies (Risk-Taking Strategies)**
Topic Avoidance	Switching
Message Abandonment	Borrowing/Inventing
Semantic Avoidance	Paraphrasing
Message Reduction	Paralinguistic Strategies(Gestures)

Similarly, Faerch and Kasper's (1983) taxonomy suggests that the speakers who face a communication problem have two options: either to terminate the problem by *avoiding* the obstacle, or to resolve the problem by developing an alternative plan to *achieve* a solution. As mentioned previously, Faerch and Kasper's (1983) taxonomy adopts a psychological approach of what is going on in the L2 speaker's mind. L2 speakers want to express something through the target language but they encounter an obstacle. Therefore, to get around this psychological problem, they resort to OCSs.

The communication strategies in the taxonomy of Faerch and Kasper (1983) are classified based on the speakers' intention either to achieve some solutions to the communication problems or to avoid them. Adopting either option is based on two considerations: the learner's behaviour (i.e., whether it tends to be avoidance-oriented or achievement-oriented), the nature of the problem encountered. Based on Corder's (1983) framework, Faerch and Kasper divide OCSs into two main categories: achievement strategies (also referred to by other researchers as compensatory strategies) and reduction strategies (also known as avoidance strategies). These two options represent the major division in their taxonomy as shown in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6

Faerch and Kasper's (1983) Taxonomy of OCSs

OCSs	
Reduction Strategies	**Achievement Strategies**
1. Formal reduction strategies	1. Compensatory Strategies
a. Phonological	1.1 Code Switching
b. Morphological	1.2. Interlingual Transfer
c. Syntactic	1.3 Inter/intralingual Transfer
d. Lexical	1.4 IL based Strategies:
	a. generalization
2. Function Reduction Strategies	b. paraphrase
2.1. Actional Reduction	c. Word Coinage
2.2. Modal Reduction	d. Restructuring
2.3 Reduction of the Propositional Content:	1.5 Cooperative Strategies
a. Topic Avoidance	1.6 Non-Linguistic Strategies
b. Message Abandonment	
c. Meaning Replacement	2. Retrieval Strategies

Achievement strategy are employed to communicate the whole message as perceived by the speaker, such as paraphrasing, translation, mime, asking for help from interlocutor. As a result, the message is neither lost nor altered. However, reduction strategies results in communicating either an imperfect message or a message different from the one initially intended. That is, it leads to either reducing the message (due to the speaker's failure to convey the whole intended messages and accordingly, only a partial solution may be resorted to) or to find no solution (as the speakers abandon the message and maybe try to convey messages they can manage).

Generally, the present research considers Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) taxonomy as a better classification of the OCSs. As Ellis (1994) agues, Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy (1983) serves as a basis for classifying the communication strategies into

categories instead of only listing them like Tarone's taxonomy (1977). Furthermore, Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) taxonomy provides a psycholinguistic framework more detailed and advanced than that of Tarone and Bialystok. Consequently, the present study will adopt Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) classification of OCSs together with some of the OCSs included in their taxonomy as will be explained later in Section 2.6.

2.5.4.4 Dornyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) Taxonomy of OCSs

Dornyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) taxonomy is regarded as a summary of all the taxonomies proposed in OCS research. Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) identified the communication strategies based on the manner of problem management, namely, how communication strategies facilitate to resolve problems and achieve mutual understanding. As shown in Table 2.7 below, the taxonomy divides OCSs into three basic categories: direct, indirect and interactional strategies. It includes some new strategies such as the use of pause fillers, the use of similar-sounding words, feigning understanding, omission, and mumbling.

Direct strategies refer to the alternative and manageable plans executed by the speaker who faces a communication problem to get his meaning across, like circumlocution, restructuring and other strategies that compensate for the lack of a word or phrase. The majority of the traditionally identified communication strategies falls under this category.

Indirect strategies, on the other hand, play a significant role in problem-management. Although they "are not strictly problem-solving devices" and do not help speakers to make alternative meaning structures, they contribute to conveying the meaning

indirectly by creating situations for avoiding breakdowns and achieving mutual understanding and thus keeping the communication going (e.g. using fillers).

Interactional strategies, however, refer to the trouble-shooting exchanges carried out cooperatively by the interlocutors (e.g., appealing for help, or requesting for clarification). The successful execution of these trouble-shooting exchanges by the interlocutors during their communication results in mutual understanding of the interaction taking place.

Table 2.7

Dornyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) OCS Taxonomy. Adapted from Dornyei and Scott (1997, p.197)

OCSs		
1. Direct Strategies	**2. Interactional Strategies**	**3. Indirect Strategies**
A. Resource Deficit-Related Strategies	**A. Resource Deficit-Related Strategies**	**A. Processing Time Pressure-Related Strategies**
* Message Abandonment	* Appeals for Help	* Use of Fillers
* Message Reduction		* Repetitions
* Message Replacement	**B. Own-Performance Problem-Related Strategies**	
* Circumlocution	* Comprehension Check	**B. Own-Performance Problem-Related Strategies**
* Approximation	* Own-Accuracy Check	* Verbal Strategy Markers
* Use of all-Purpose Words		
* Word-Coinage	**C. Other-Performance Problem-Related Strategies**	**C. Other-Performance Problem-Related Strategies**
* Restructuring	* Asking for Repetition	* Feigning Understanding
* Literal Translation	* Asking for Clarification	
* Foreignizing	* Asking for Confirmation	
* Code Switching	* Guessing	
* Use of Similar Sounding Words	* Expressing Non-Understanding	
* Mumbling	* Interpretive Summary	
* Omission	* Responses	
* Retrieval		
* Mime		
B. Own-Performance Problem-Related Strategies		
* Self-Rephrasing		
* Self-Repair		
C. Other-Performance Problem-Related Strategies		
* Other-Repair		

Reviewing the four taxonomies proposed by Tarone (1977), Bialystok (1983), Faerch and Kasper (1983a), and Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) has provided frameworks for the classifications of OCSs used by L2 speakers to keep interaction continuing smoothly and to overcome communication problems. However, comparing those taxonomies is needed as it will further offer a clearer picture that contributes to determining the taxonomy most appropriate for the present study.

Therefore, the current research will first draw comparisons between the four taxonomies. Then, based on this comparison, a selection of OCS taxonomy for the present study will be made, followed by a discussion of the rationale for the OCS taxonomy selected. Therefore, the following section shows the results of comparing the four taxonomies.

2.5.5 Comparing the Different Taxonomies of OCSs

As previously explained, a number of OCS taxonomies has been developed and organized according to certain criteria such as the choice of the speaker whether to reduce or achieve his goal (Faerch & Kasper, 1983), or to consult different sources of information (LI or L2) (Bialystok, 1983) or based on the manner of problem management (Dornyei & Scott, 1997). Table 2.8 below provides comparisons among the OCSs included in the four taxonomies and the overlap among these OCSs.

Table 2.8

The OCSs Included in the Four Taxonomies of OCSs

No	Type of OCSs	Tarone (1977)	Bialystok (1983)	Faerch and Kasper (1983a)	Dornyei and Scott (1995a & 1995b)
1	Topic Avoidance	√	-	√	√ (as message reduction)
2	Message Abandonment	√	-	√	√
3	Meaning Replacement	-	-	√	√
4	Approximation	√	√(as semantic continuity)	√ (as generalization)	√
5	Word Coinage	√	√	√	√
6	Circumlocution	√	√ (as description)	√ (as paraphrase)	√
7	Literal Translation	√	√ (as transliteration)	√ (as interlingual transfer)	√
8	Language Switch	√	√	√ (as code switch)	√ (as code switch)
9	Appeal for Assistances	√	-	√ (as co-operative Ss)	√
10	Foreignizing	-	√	√ (as interlingual transfer)	√
11	Mime	√	√ (also includes gesture)	√ (as non-ling. Ss)	√
12	Mumbling	-	-	-	√
13	Omission	-	-	-	√
14	Restructuring	-	-	√	√
15	Retrieval Strategies	-	-	√	√
16	Use of all-Purpose Words	-	-	-	√
17	Use of Similar-Sounding Words	-	-	-	√
18	Self-Rephrasing	-	-	-	√
19	Self-Repair	-	-	-	√
20	Other-Repair	-	-	-	√
21	Comprehension Check	-	-	-	√
22	Own-accuracy Check	-	-	-	√
23	Asking for Repetition	-	-	-	√
24	Asking for Clarification	-	-	-	√
25	Asking for Confirmation				√
26	Guessing	-	-	-	√
27	Expressing Non-Understanding	-	-	-	√
28	Interpretive Summary	-	-	-	√
29	Responses	-	-	-	√
30	Use of Fillers	-	-	-	√
31	Repetitions	-	-	-	√
32	Verbal Strategy Markers	-	-	-	√
33	Feigning Understanding	-	-	-	√

Comparing the four taxonomies included in Table 2.8 above results in the following conclusions:

a) Though these taxonomies apparently look different in terms of their classifications and terminologies of the OCSs, their actual content is often the same. The comparison also shows that a single utterance may be classified under two different categories. For example, what is labeled as *circumlocution* in a particular taxonomy is referred to as *exemplification* or *description* in other taxonomies. Furthermore, some of these taxonomies overlap and others better classify and define communication strategies. This accounts for the reason why no consensus has been reached so far on a definitive taxonomy of communication strategies.

b) Tarone's taxonomy which was the earliest to describe OCSs and served as a basis for subsequent OCS taxonomies just listed the OCSs without classifying them into categories. On the other hand, although Bialystok (1983) avoided merely listing the OCSs by classifying the OCSs into three major categories: LI-based strategies, L2-based strategies and paralinguistic strategies, it is clearly seen that the strategies identified in Bialystok's taxonomy are similar to those in Tarone's (1977), with some difference as explained in Sub-section 2.5.4.2.

c) Concerning Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) taxonomy, Ellis (2003) states that Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy (1983) serves as a basis for classifying the communication strategies into categories instead of only listing them like

Tarone's taxonomy (1977). Furthermore, it provides a psycholinguistic framework more detailed and advanced than that of Tarone and Bialystok (see Sub-section 2.5.4.3).

d) A considerable similarity can be noticed between the taxonomies proposed by Tarone, Bialystok, and Faerch and Kasper, though some terminologies are different. The whole of Bialystok's taxonomy as well as all of Tarone' categories, excluding *avoidance* fall within Faerch and Kasper's compensatory strategies. Regarding avoidance strategies, Faerch and Kasper add *meaning replacement* besides Tarone's *topic avoidance* and *message abandonment.* Generally speaking, although different researchers adopt different terminology on OCSs, these terminologies, as a matter of fact, refer more or less to the same item. For example, Faerch and Kasper *Generalization* and *paraphrase* correspond approximately to Tarone's *approximation*, *circumlocution* respectively.

e) With respects to Dornyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) taxonomy, it is regarded as a summary of most of the taxonomies proposed in OCS research, and also includes some new strategies which are nonexistent in the other taxonomies such as the use of pause fillers, the use of similar-sounding words, and feigning understanding. Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) identified communication strategies based on the manner of problem management, namely, how OCSs facilitate to resolving problems and achieving mutual understanding.

f) The taxonomies proposed by Tarone, Bialystok, and Faerch and Kasper overwhelmingly focus on the speaker, whereas Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy combines the two parties, i.e., the speaker as well as the listener. It focuses on the individual production as well as the inter-individual features of OCSs related to comprehension problems occurring between interlocutors. The various OCSs included in Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy reflect how the two interlocutors employ OCSs (such as asking for repetition and expressing non-understanding) to negotiate meaning and achieve comprehension.

g) A final conclusion is related to the predominant concern of the taxonomies proposed by Tarone, Bialystok, and Faerch and Kasper with the lexical gaps in the speaker's linguistic knowledge, whereas Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy focuses on both sentences and words.

Undoubtedly, reviewing and comparing the taxonomies has provided a clearer picture of the most dominant taxonomies in OCSs research. It also paved the way for the present study to get deeper insights into the various OCS taxonomies proposed throughout the OCSs literature. The comparison actually helped the current research make a decision on the OCSs that were to be selected for the taxonomy of the present study which is supposed to serve as the ground for measuring the OCSs by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. The next sub-section sheds light on the OCSs selected to be measured by this study.

2.6 Selecting OCSs for the Taxonomy of the Present Study

As shown in Table 2.9 below, the present study follows Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) division of OCSs into avoidance strategies and achievement ones. The achievement strategies are further sub-divided into psycholinguistic OCSs and interactional OCSs. Moreover, the present study adopts the OCSs appeared in Tarone's (1977) taxonomy with their terminologies. In addition, the present study's taxonomy will adopt some OCSs from Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy and Dornyei and Scott's.

So far, this adoption covers the avoidance strategies category as well as the sub-category of the psycholinguistic strategies included in the achievement strategies category. As for the interactional OCSs (the sub-category under the achievement strategies category), the study selected some of the interactional strategies in Dornyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) taxonomy. The rationale for selecting the taxonomy of this study is presented in the following section.

2.7 The Rationale for the Taxonomy Selected for the Present Study

As shown in Table 2.9 below, the taxonomy of OCSs used in this study was selected and compiled based on taxonomies proposed by Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper (1983a), and Dornyei and Scott (1997). First of all, this study's taxonomy adopts Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) major categorization of OCSs into achievement and reduction strategies. The rationale for this adoption is two folded. First, based on the definitions of OCSs proposed by different researchers, the basic aim of using OCSs is to achieve a communicative goal in the speaker's mind. Hence, OCSs should be categorized based on their main function as a means of interactions rather than any other categorization.

Table 2.9

The OCS Taxonomy Selected for the Present Study

Oral Communication Strategies	
I. Avoidance Strategies	
1. Topic Avoidance	(Tarone, 1977)
2. Message Abandonment	(Tarone, 1977)
3. Meaning Replacement	(Faerch & Kasper,1983a)
II. Achievement Strategies	
1. Psycholinguistic Strategies	
1.1 Approximation	(Tarone, 1977)
1.2 Mime	(Tarone, 1977)
1.3 Word Coinage	(Tarone, 1977)
1.4 Circumlocution	(Tarone, 1977)
1.5 Code-Switching	(Tarone, 1977)
1.6 Literal Translation	(Tarone, 1977)
1.7 Restructuring	(Faerch & Kasper,1983a)
1.8 Retrieval	(Faerch & Kasper,1983a)
1.9 Use of all-Purposes Words	(Dornyei & Scott, 1995a &1995b)
1.10use of Similar-Sounding Words	(Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b)
1.11 Self-Repair	(Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b)
1.12self-Rephrasing	(Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b)
2. Interactional Strategies	
2.1 Appeal for Help	(Tarone, 1977)
2.2.Asking for Clarification	(Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b)
2.3 Asking for Confirmation	(Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b)
2.4 Asking for Repetition	(Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b)
2.5 Comprehension Check	(Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b)

Second, the linguistic behaviour of L2 speakers when encountering a communication breakdown is likely to take place based on two major considerations: either to achieve some solutions to the communication breakdowns or to avoid them (Faerch & Kasper's, 1983a). Accordingly, the taxonomy supposed to be selected for this study has to reflect these linguistic considerations in order to serve the purposes of the present study that aim to investigate whether Yemeni postgraduates tend to achieve or avoid their communicative goals. Therefore, this Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) categorization is the best choice possible for this study.

Second, since this study adopts two approaches to OCSs, i.e., the interactional and the psycholinguistic, it is not reasonable to rely on only one taxonomy from the literature. That is because Tarone's (1977) taxonomy, though it is considered as a representative of interactional OCSs, does not inclusively reflect the interactional aspect of OCSs, because most of its OCSs do not involve the interlocutor's part in the communication process. On the other hand, Faerch and Kasper's (1983a) taxonomy is much concerned with psycholinguistic processes occurring in an individual's mind, though their taxonomy includes cooperative strategies taking place among interlocutors who share, while interacting, communicative problems and may cooperate together to solve these problems.

As a result, the third taxonomy of Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) is also chosen because it contains a number of interactional OCSs that can be found in authentic communications. Dornyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) taxonomy focuses on interactions and negotiation of meanings between interlocutors to reach mutual understanding. Additionally, the achievement strategies are further sub-divided into psycholinguistic OCSs and interactional OCSs in order to be relevant to the research context and reflect the two approaches to OCSs (the psycholinguistic and the interactional) adopted by the present study.

Third, comparing the four taxonomies presented earlier has shown similarities and overlap among them. Therefore, in order to eliminate the redundancies and overlap perceived among the taxonomies, the study excluded Bialystok's taxonomy due to its apparent similarities to Tarone's (1977) (kindly, refer to Sub-section 2.5.4.2), and also

due to its categorizing OCSs based on the source of information (L1 or L2), which is not among interests of the present study. As a result, the present study adopts the OCSs appeared in Tarone's (1977) taxonomy with their terminologies being the first taxonomy based on which the subsequent ones were proposed. Furthermore, in a further attempt to reduce redundancies and overlap, the taxonomy of the present study excludes the OCSs that seem to appear convergent throughout the different taxonomies. For example, Dornyei and Scott's *mumbling* and *omission* are dropped because they refer more or less to *message abandonment* which is already included in the taxonomy.

Accordingly, the three taxonomies of Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper (1983a), and Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) were combined to constitute the taxonomy for the present study as shown in Table 2.9 above. Having selected the OCS taxonomy for the present study, the next sub-section, therefore, moves on to review the relevant research on the OCSs use.

2.8 OCS Related Studies

Numerous studies have been carried out to investigate the use of OCSs by learners of different backgrounds and to examine the factors affecting the OCSs. Therefore, this section consists of two sub-sections. The first one reviews the OCSs related studies and discusses the role played by language proficiency and academic fields in the OCSs use, whereas the second sub-section also sheds light on the OCS literature but with relation to the impact of gender, self-perceived oral proficiency and length of stay in the L2 culture on the OCSs use.

2.8.1 The Role of Language Proficiency and Academic Fields in the OCSs Use

Mei and Nathalang (2010) investigated the OCSs commonly used by Chinese EFL non-English major undergraduates and examined the extent to which the use of these strategies is affected by three variables, i.e. proficiency, task type and academic major. Data were collected from 117 first-year students classified with either a high or low English proficiency level and belonging to two different academic departments (i.e., Arts and Sciences). Data were collected for participants' performance on both one-way (i.e., concept identification task) and two-way tasks (i.e., role play task). Results revealed that students' use of OCSs was influenced by the two variables: task type, and English proficiency level. Participants did not differ significantly based on their different academic major. Furthermore, the study identified a number of communication strategies used by the participants such as *paraphrase*, *restructuring* and *generalization* as *IL-based OCSs*, and *avoidance* strategies such as *message abandonment.*

However, Mei and Nathalang's (2010) study is criticized in terms of the limited number of the academic departments whose differences in the use on OCSs were examined. As shown above, only two departments (i.e., Arts and Sciences) were the representatives of the academic departments, which is considered a very limited number of departments. Accordingly, generalizing the findings of Mei and Nathalang's (2010) study to all students of other academic fields can be questionable. In addition, respondents were classified into two groups either high or low students. No room was given for intermediate language proficiency. Including participants with intermediate language proficiency might have shown some differences in the OCS use among the students.

In another study, Chen (2009) examined the oral OCSs employed by college English majors and investigated the relationship between the subjects' speaking proficiency and their use of oral communication strategies. The subjects were 126 students majoring in Applied Foreign Languages at a university in central Taiwan, and divided into low and high speaking proficiency groups. Nakatani's (2006) oral communication strategy inventory (OCSI) was adopted as an instrument to elicit the OCSs used by the participants. Results indicated that speaking proficiency was related to the use of OCSs at some level. They also demonstrated that high proficient speakers used effective strategies such as negotiation for meaning, social affective strategies, and fluency-oriented strategies, and accuracy-oriented strategies more frequently than low proficient speakers who inclined to use negative strategies such as message abandonment, message reduction and alteration strategies more often.

To a considerable extent, Chen's (2009) study is similar to that of Mei and Nathalang (2010) in terms of the research objectives, but Chen (2009) used a method in collecting data (i.e., Nakatani's [2006] OCSI) which is different from those that have been usually adopted since the early stage of OCSs research, which contributed to supporting results of the previous studies. However, Chen's (2009) study is criticized for investigating only one background variable of his respondents, i.e. language proficiency. Other variables (e.g., gender or age) were not examined. In addition, as is the case for Mei and Nathalang's (2010), Chen's (2009) respondents were divided into two groups either high or low students. Students with intermediate language proficiency were beyond the interest of his study.

In another study, Binhayeearong (2009) investigated the OCSs employed by M.3 (possibly it refers to the level of class) English program students in an Islamic school in Thailand, and examined whether the subjects' English language proficiency and task affected their use of OCSs. The participants were 20 students whose average grades of four English subjects over two years from M.1 to M.2 were used to divide them into high and low proficiency groups. Role play and definition formulation tasks (explaining concrete and abstract concepts) were employed to identify OCSs utilized by each student.

The findings obtained by Binhayeearong (2009) showed that students employed compensatory strategies more frequently than avoidance strategies, and intra-actional (conveying meaning) strategies more frequently than interactional strategies (involving a listener in a conversation). Also, results demonstrated significant differences between the use of communication strategies by the high and low proficient students, where the high proficient students used significantly fewer avoidance strategies and employed both intra-actional strategies and interactional strategies significantly more frequently than the low proficient students do.

Wannaruk (2003) investigated the use of communication strategies of students who learnt English for Science and Technology (EST) at some university, and whether the students' level of oral proficiency affected their use of OCSs. 75 students majoring in engineering, information technology, and agriculture were interviewed by native English teachers and classified based on IELTS criteria into high, middle and low English proficiency groups, where each group consisted of 25 students. The data used in the analysis was taken from one-to-one interviews of students by native English

teachers. Each interview lasted about 5-7 minutes and was videotaped and transcribed, and the OCSs were then categorized.

Wannaruk (2003) found that 'modification devices' was the most frequently used communication strategy, followed in order of frequency by 'nonlinguistic strategies', 'L1-based strategies', 'target language-based strategies', and 'avoidance strategies'. The findings indicated that students employed different communication strategies with varying levels according to their language proficiency. However, Wannaruk (2003) did not utilize the different backgrounds of the participants who belonged to different academic fields in order to add a new dimension to her study that could have been different from OCS previous research.

Generally, the studies conducted by Mei and Nathalang (2010), Chen (2009), Binhayeearong (2009) and Wannaruk (2003) have similar objectives represented by examining the role of L2 proficiency in OCSs use. All of these studies obtained similar results that confirmed the influence of L2 proficiency on the types and choice of OCSs by L2 learners. What is remarkable here is that recent OCS research has changed its orientation to explore factors influencing the OCS use other than the task type and L2 proficiency. For example, Mei and Nathalang (2010) suggest that there are other factors affecting the OCS use beside the tasks and the language proficiency such as the students' learning situation, their motivation and personality. The current research responded to those suggestions by OCSs researcher and attempted to examine the role played by language motivation and language anxiety in the use of OCSs.

Furthermore, Binhayeearong (2009) suggests other methods such as questionnaires or interviews to be adopted to elicit background information about the students such as their attitude towards English, their learning and cultural background, attitude, personality traits, and the context of their studies, which can be factors affecting the students' choice of OCSs. Wannaruk (2003) also affirms that the choice of OCSs and success in using them are influenced by a variety of factors other than the oral proficiency such as personal characteristics of learners that might affect the ways learners use OCSs. Therefore, OCS literature recommends that the relationships between these factors and the use of OCSs should also be investigated. In response to these recommendations, the present study attempts to investigate the influence of language motivation and personal variables of the respondents on the OCSs as mentioned in Chapter One.

Qiumei (2004) explored the perceptions held by Chinese EFL learners studying in Australian tertiary institutions on communication difficulties with native speakers in Australian social and academic contexts, and on the OCSs they used in Australian academic and casual contexts. 16 Chinese EFL learners of English studying at tertiary educational institutions in Melbourne aged between 23 and 38 participated in the study. Participants were given a questionnaire to respond to, and then six of the 16 participants were chosen for a focus group discussion. The subjects were Masters students enrolled in different faculties. They were all labeled as competent users of English (IELTS Band 6 at least). Qiumei (2004) observed that a number of factors played a considerable role in increasing the difficulties faced by EFL learners, such as listening comprehension of what native speakers say, lack of opportunities to engage

and remain in the conversation during academic discussions, and lack of competence in using English correctly and appropriately in a certain social and academic context as well as culture of learning. Qiumei (2004) also found that the participants used communicative strategies such as message adjustment or avoidance, approximation, paraphrasing, asking for repetition, appeal for help, interpretive summary, checking, asking for clarification, and use of fillers hesitation devices.

However, among the weaknesses in Qiumei's (2004) study is the small number of the participants responding to her questionnaire who were only 16. Thus, it is difficult to interpret the results due to validity and replicating issues. Importantly, Qiumei's does not mention any information about the questionnaire in terms of its developer, or how it was developed and designed. She directly presented the results of her study. Consequently, the current study was extremely concerned to avoid this weakness perceived in Qiumei's (2004) study, and tried its best to adopt a valid and reliable instrument.

Tsuchimochi (2001) examined the types of OCSs frequently used by EFL Japanese learners and the factors influencing the effectiveness of OCSs. Participants were 10 English majors at a college in Japan, five of them were in their first year while the rest were in the second. All of the participants had a high "formal ability in the TL". Concept- identification task was adopted to elicit the OCSs, where twenty single lexical items (10 concrete and 10 abstract) were used. Participants were asked to convey the meaning of two concrete items and two abstract ones to a native speaker.

A number of OCSs were identified such as paraphrase, approximation, exemplification, generalization, and circumlocution. Tsuchimochi (2001) also identified some factors affecting the effectiveness of OCSs, i.e., strategic competence, linguistic competence (including grammatical accuracy of utterances such as omission of the pronouns, prepositions or definite article, incomplete sentences) and what Tsuchimochi calls informative value (represented by learners' personal experience, biased understanding of the target concept).

Guans (2008) investigated the OCS use by the Indonesian EFL learners of the 11^{th} grade at a language program in the classroom interaction. Participants were only eight students constituting the total number of the 11^{th}-grade students of language program. The study used a qualitative design, particularly a case study, and data was collected through classroom observation and interview, using tape-recording and note-taking.

Data analysis in Gunas' (2008) study was based on Tarone's taxonomy of OCSs (1980). Results showed that the Indonesian EFL learners employed eight types of communication strategies, i.e., topic avoidance, message abandonment, approximation, language switch, literal translation, simplification, mime, and time-gaining/stalling. Guanss classified six types under Tarone's taxonomy, which were topic avoidance, approximation, message abandonment, literal translation, language switch, and mime. The other two types, i.e., time-gaining /stalling and simplification were claimed by Cunas (2008) as new findings in his study. The research found that five problem-based and task-based factors led students to use these eight OCSs, i.e., the context of interaction, task types, effects of the problem-source, lack of vocabulary, and the limited knowledge of the target language structures.

Actually, Gunas' (2008) claim of identifying *time-gaining /stalling* and simplification as new OCSs is attributed to his adoption of only one OCS taxonomy by Tarone (1980) which did not allow for other OCSs to be identified. Importantly, Guans mentioned other factors that can influence the employment of OCSs such as motivation, personality, classroom activities and the context of interaction. Examining the influence of motivation on the OCS use is one of the objectives of the present study as mentioned in Chapter One.

As seen above, findings of the OCSs related studies agree upon the role of language proficiency in the use of OCSs. As presented in Table 2.10 below, the vast majority of the studies shows an inverse relationship between L2 proficiency and the frequency of the OCSs use, i.e., the lower language proficiency of the respondents, the higher number of OCSs used. However, very few studies examine the impact of the academic field in the OCSs use, which is one of the aims of the present study. The next sub-section, thus, attempts to review OCS literature that discusses the role played by gender, self-perceived oral proficiency and length of stay in the L2 culture in the OCSs use.

Table 2.10

OCS Related Studies on the Role of Language Proficiency and Academic Fields in the OCS Use

Researcher(s)	Objective(s) of the Study	Type and Number of Subjects	Method	Results
Mei and Nathalang (2010)	Investigating OCSs used by Chinese EFL non-English majors under-graduates and measuring the relationship between OCS use and three variables, (proficiency, task type & academic major).	117 first-year students classified as having either a high or low English proficiency level and belonging to two different academic departments (Arts and Sciences)	1. Concept identification task. 2. role play	1. Students' OCS use is influenced by the two variables: task type, English proficiency level. Academic majors have no impact. 2. OCSs used are *paraphrase*, *restructuring* and *generalization* as *IL-based OCSs*, and *avoidance* strategies such as *message abandonment*. 3. Sciences students resort to *clarification requests* more frequently than those from the Arts.
Chen (2009)	Examining OCSs used by college English majors and the relationship between the subjects' speaking proficiency and their use of OCSs.	126 students majoring in Applied Foreign Languages at some university in central Taiwan, divided into low and high speaking proficiency groups.	Nakatani's (2006) Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI).	L2 proficiency was related to the use of OCSs at some level. 2. High proficient speakers used effective strategies more frequently than low proficient speakers did.
Binhayeearong (2009)	Investigating OCSs used by M.3 English program students in an Islamic School in Thailand, and examining whether their English language proficiency and task affect their use of OCSs.	20 participants divided into high and low proficiency groups.	Role play and definition formulation tasks.	1. Students use compensatory strategies more frequently than avoidance strategies. 2. the high proficient students use significantly fewer avoidance strategies more frequently than the low proficiency students do.

Table 2.10 (Continued)

OCS Related Studies on the Role of Language Proficiency and Academic Fields in the OCS Use

Researcher(s)	Objective(s) of the Study	Type and Number of Subjects	Method	Results
Wannaruk (2003)	Investigating the use of communication strategies of students at some university who learn English for Science and Technology (EST), and whether the students' level of oral proficiency affects their use of OCSs.	75 students majoring in engineering, information technology, and agriculture are interviewed by native English teachers and classified based on IELTS criteria into high, middle and low English proficiency groups. Each group consists of 25 students.	5-7 minutes from one-to-one interviews of students by native English teachers	1. 'Modification devices' is the most frequently OCS used, followed by 'nonlinguistic strategies', 'L1-based strategies', 'target language-based strategies', and 'avoidance strategies'. 2. Students employ different OCSs with varying levels according to their language proficiency.
Qiumei (2004)	Exploring the perceptions held by Chinese EFL learners studying in Australia on the communicative strategies they employ in Australian academic and casual contexts.	16 Chinese EFL learners of English studying at tertiary educational institutions in Melbourne aged from 23 to 38, labeled as competent users of the target language (IELTS Band 6 at least).	A questionnaire and a focus group discussion.	A number of OCSs were used such as message adjustment or avoidance, approximation, paraphrasing, asking for repetition, checking, and use of fillers hesitation devices.
Tsuchimochi (2001)	Exploring the types of OCSs used by EFL Japanese learners and the factors influencing the effectiveness of OCSs.	10 English majors at some college, five of them were in their first year while the rest were in the second.	Concept-identification task.	1. A number of OCSs were used. 2. Factors affecting the effectiveness of OCSs can be strategic and linguistic competence.
Gunas (2008)	Investigating OCS use by the Indonesian EFL learners of the 11th grade in a language program during the classroom interaction.	eight students constituting the total number of the 11th-grade	classroom observation and interview	Indonesian EFL learners employed eight types of OCSs. Time-gaining /stalling and simplification claimed by the researcher as new findings. Among the factors affecting the OCS use are context of interaction, task types, lack of vocabulary, and the limited knowledge of TL.

2.8.2 Impact of Gender, Self-Perceived Lanaguge Oral Proficiency and Length of Stay in the L2 Culture on the OCSs Use

Reviewing literature reveals that only few studies deal with the influence of gender, self-perceived language oral proficiency and length of stay on the L2 culture on the use of OCSs. As far as gender is concerned, the dearth of the studies is attributed to the fact that gender differences are discussed mostly in research on language learning strategies (Huang, 2010). Among the studies that examined the gender effect on the OCS use is that conducted by Lai (2010) on 36 (18 males and 18 females) Chinese EFL learners who were in their final year of undergraduate English programme and randomly chosen for the study. The communicative tasks employed in Lai's (2010) study were a concept-identification task involving both oral and written productions by the subjects in order to, as the researcher justifies, gain an inclusive picture of OCS use by female and male EFL learners in the Chinese context. Results indicated that there were hardly any differences between males and females when using strategies, i.e., Chinese male and female learners were likely to use similar frequency and types of strategies that no sex-related significant effect was identified on the frequency and types of OCS use.

However, since the main aim of Lai's (2010) study is to explore the gender effect on the OCSs use, it can be argued that one task (concept-identification) may not be adequate to establish a sound ground for eliciting the differences on OCS use between females and males. One or two more tasks (e.g., role play, and interview) could have contributed to elicit the differences.

In another study, Li (2010) examined the relationship between speaking anxiety and speaking strategies among university students in Taiwan. Participants were 309 non-English freshmen and sophomores from a university of education who responded to two scales: Speaking Anxiety Scale [adapted from Huang's (2005) FLSAS] and Speaking Strategies Scale (adapted from Nakatani's [2006] OCSI).

In contrast to Lai (2010), Li (2010) found that females applied strategies more often than their male counterparts when speaking English. Li's (2010) study also demonstrated that people who started learning English from junior high school significantly employ more 'reduction strategy' than those who began learning English from kindergarten. Remarkably, Li (2010) obtained inconsistent result with the previous research confirming the inverse relationship between L2 proficiency and the frequency of the OCSs use. Li (2010) showed that higher English proficient students tended to employ more speaking strategies.

On the other hand, Huang (2010) investigated the influence of gender among five other variables (gender, language proficiency, self-perceived oral proficiency, the frequency of speaking English outside the classroom, and motivation in speaking English) affecting the OCSs used by technological university students in Taiwan. The sample consisted of 98 sophomore students of a university of science and technology. Huang adopted Nakatani's OCSI (2006), along with the demographics and English learning backgrounds of students to collect data. Huang (2010) found that gender and English proficiency hardly had any effect on the use of OCSs, whereas self-perceived oral proficiency was reported to affect the OCSs use. Furthermore, the frequency of speaking English outside the classroom and motivation in speaking English were the

powerful predictors of the use of OCSs among the participants of the study. Huang's (2010) investigation of the motivation factor influencing the use of OCSs will also be referred to in the following section due to its relation to motivation being one of the independent variables of the present study.

As clearly seen, inconclusive results have been obtained regarding the role of gender in the OCSs use. Huang's (2010) findings is consistent with that of Lai (2010) as both studies show that gender hardly has any influence on the frequency of OCS, whereas Li (2010) found that gender played a role in the OCS use. Accordingly, further investigation of the role of gender in the use of OCSs is needed to reduce the gap represented by these inconclusive findings, which is one of the aims of this study. Also, it is noteworthy that recent OCS research has tended to explore different factors other than L2 proficiency and task type. For example, Mei and Nathalang (2010) and Hunag (2010) list motivation and personality as two factors among others affecting the use of OCS, which are within the interest of the present study to investigate.

In a study conducted on Arab students, Al-Samawi (1995) examined the use of lexical replacement strategies employed by L2 male Arab students in Western Pennsylvania to determine how and why those Arab learners implied these strategies in their extemporaneous speech. Al-Samawi (1995) also investigated whether personal factors (such as length of stay in L2 culture, and previous experience in delivering speech) influenced the use of replacement strategies. 20 male Arab subjects were video-taped while delivering a 15-minute extemporaneous speech. They were then given a questionnaire and interviewed to determine why they used replacement strategies.

The results demonstrated that the participants employed replacement strategies in their speeches either to achieve a communicative goal (making the audience understand better, sounding more professional, context appropriateness, showing off) or to overcome a communication problem (lack of vocabulary, lack of immediate access to a previously- learned item of L1). The study also revealed that personal variables (i. e. length of stay, proficiency level and previous experience in delivering speech) were related to the use of certain replacement strategies. Al-Samawi's study, however, (1995) has some weaknesses. One of its main limitations is the total absence of female representation. Thus, it can be claimed that the results of Al-Samawi's study is not valid in terms of its generalization to all Arab learners.

On the other hand, Rababah (2001) conducted a qualitative study of the strategic competence of Arab English majors studying at a university in Jordan. Rababah's study aimed to identify which OCSs were used by English majors while speaking in Ll (Arabic) and L2 (English). The subjects of the study were 30 English majors aged between 19 and 23 and divided into three proficiency levels according to a TOEFL test. Data were collected based on their performance in three communicative tasks designed for the study.

The main finding of Rababah's (2001) study is that English majors made a wide use of communication strategies, and these strategies were mostly L2- based strategies. The study revealed that the learners' use of OCSs was associated with their proficiency level, where Ll- based strategies decreased as proficiency improves. The study also demonstrated the effect of the subjects' native language (Arabic) which increased the variety of OCSs used, as it was found that literal translation and word

coinage, for example, were broadly influenced by the interference of the students' mother tongue. The participants' use of OCSs was also related to the type of task they were performing. Finally, Arab students employed communication strategies while speaking in their native language, but when compared to the OCSs used in the target language, these were fewer in terms of frequency and vary in terms of type.

In conclusion, OCS research in relation to the impact of gender, self-perceived oral proficiency and length of stay in the L2 culture on the OCS use suffers from extreme paucity as well as mixed results. This actually raises the need for further research to reduce this gap, which the present study attempts to achieve. Table 2.11 below shows a summary of these studies.

Table 2.11

OCS Related Studies on the Impact of Gender, Self-Perceived Language Oral Proficiency and Length of Stay in the L2 Culture on the OCS Use

Researcher(s)	Objective(s) of the Study	Type and Number of Subjects	Method	Results
Lai (2010)	Exploring the gender effect on the OCS use	36 (18 males and 18 females) Chinese EFL learners who were in their final year of undergraduate English programme	Concept-identification task involving both oral and written productions	No sex-related significant effect is identified on the frequency and types of OCS use.
Li (2010)	Examining the relationship between speaking anxiety and speaking strategies among university students in Taiwan	309 non-English freshmen and sophomores from some university in Taiwan.	Speaking Anxiety Scale (adapted from Huang's (2005) FLSAS) and Speaking Strategies Scale (adapted from Nakatani's (2006) OCSI).	1. Females apply strategies more often than males when speaking English. 2. Also, no statistically significant difference between males and females are found on the three categories of speaking anxiety.
Huang (2010)	Investigating the influence of five variables (gender, language proficiency, self-perceived oral proficiency, the frequency of speaking English outside the classroom, and motivation in speaking English) on OCS use.	98 sophomore students of some university of science and technology in Taiwan.	Nakatani's Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) (2006),	1. Gender and English proficiency hardly have any effect on the OCS use. 2. Self-perceived oral proficiency affects the OCSs use 3. The frequency of speaking English outside the classroom and motivation in speaking English are the powerful predictors of the use OCS.

Table 2.11 (Continued)

OCS Related Studies on the Impact of Gender, Self-Perceived Language Oral Proficiency and Length of Stay in the L2 Culture on the OCS Use

Researcher(s)	Objective(s) of the Study	Type and Number of Subjects	Method	Results
Al-Samawi (1995)	Examining the use of lexical replacement strategies (RSs) by L2 male Arab, and whether personal factors (length of stay in L2 culture, age, and previous experience in delivering speech) influence the use of RS	20 male Arab students in Western Pennsylvania.	1. Delivering a 15-minute extemporaneous speech. 2. questionnaire 3. interviews	1. Subjects used RSs in their speeches either to achieve a communicative goal or to overcome a communication. 2. Personal variables (i.e., length of stay, proficiency level and previous experience in delivering speech) were related to the use of RSs
Rababah (2001)	To explore OCSs used by Jordanian English majors while communicating in L1 Arabic and L2 English.	30 English Jordanian majors aged between 19 and 23 who were divided into three proficiency levels.	Three communicative tasks especially designed for the study.	Subjects make wide use of OCSs, and these strategies are mostly L2- English based strategies. Learners' use of OCSs is related to their proficiency level and to the type of task The subjects' use of OCSs is also related.

2.9 Conclusion of the OCS Related Studies

A review of the relevant literature on OCSs reveals many aspects. Firstly, a considerable part of OCS research has been concerned with identifying a definition for OCSs, trying to develop unanimous OCSs taxonomy, or examining the influence of L2 proficiency level and task type on the OCSs (e.g. Mei & Nathalang, 2010; Chen, 2009; Binhayeearong, 2009; & Wanaruk, 2003). Only few studies devote their orientation towards investigating the influence of variables such as language anxiety or motivation on the OCS use (as suggested by Huang, 2010; Mei and Nathalang, 2010; Wannaruk, 2003; and Guans, 2008), or the impact of demographic variables such as, gender, self-perceived oral proficiency, length of stay in the L2 context on the OCSs use.

Accordingly, investigating such variables is needed in order to have an inclusive picture of the variables affecting OCS use as well as in order to contribute to reducing the gap resulting from the mixed findings of some studies (as is the case for the role of gender in the OCS use). Reducing the gap referred to above is among the objectives of the present study.

Secondly, reviewing literature shows that the participants of all the OCS studies are undergraduates, school pupils, or L2 learners studying in language institutes. In addition, only very few OCS studies (e.g., Al-Samawi, 1995; & Rababah, 2001) were conducted on Arab learners. Obviously, no research on the OCS use by Yemeni students (whether they were undergraduates, school pupils, or L2 learners) has been done yet in particular. Thirdly, over three decades, the majority of the OCS research

has employed qualitative approaches of collecting data (e.g., interviews, role plays, concept descriptions) to elicit OCS use by the participants.

Based on what has been highlighted above, this study seeks to fill those gaps by investigating the use of oral communication strategies by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. Furthermore, it examines whether motivation and speaking anxiety (as independent variables) have any relationship with the use of oral communication strategies by Yemeni postgraduates. In addition, the present study will investigate the role of other factors such as gender, age, self-perceived oral proficiency, length of stay in Malaysia, and academic fields in relation to the Yemeni postgraduates' use of oral communication strategies. The following sections discuss language motivation and language anxiety being the independent variables of the present study. Krashen's (1985) Affective Filter Hypothesis is adopted as the theoretical background for these variables.

2.10 Language Motivation and Language Anxiety: Theoretical Background

Considerable research has emphasized the influence of affective factors, such as motivation and anxiety, on language achievement (Ely, 1986; Gardner, Day, & MacIntyre, 1992; Young, 1991). Affective factors, as defined by Scovel (1991), "are those that deal with the emotional reactions and motivations of the learner; they signal the arousal of the limbic system and its direct intervention in the task of learning" (p. 16). This part of the study discusses the role of language motivation and language anxiety on L2 speakers' performance. It deals with Krashen's (1985) Affective Filter Hypothesis as the theoretical background that explains the influence of such factors on the speakers' second language acquisition.

2.10.1 Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis

Krashen (1981, 1985) developed a number of hypotheses about SLA that have become a landmark in the field of SLA. Krashen's five hypotheses constitute his prominent Monitor Theory and include: the Acquisition- Learning Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis, and the Affective Filter Hypothesis. In the Affective Filter Hypothesis, Krashen (1985) argues that three kinds of affective factors influence the acquisition of a second language, i.e. motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. The next sections review the concepts and definitions of language motivation and language anxiety, followed by a discussion on the interrelationships of these two variables with the OCS use which is the main focus of the present study.

2.11 Motivation: Definition

Gardner (2006) states that "motivation is a very complex phenomenon with many facets...Thus, it is not possible to give a simple definition" (p. 242). However, Pintrich (2003) emphasizes that understanding of student motivation can be improved through answering seven substantive questions:

a) What do students want?

b) What motivates students in classrooms?

c) How do students get what they want?

d) Do students know what they want or what motivates them?

e) How does motivation lead to cognition and cognition to motivation?

f) How does motivation change and develop?

g) What is the role of context and culture?

Pintrich (2003) even affirms that "progress on these questions will help us understand and design better instruction in classrooms and schools that will facilitate motivation, cognition, and learning" (p. 682). On the other hand, Dornyei's (1998) defines motivation as a "process whereby a certain amount of instigation force arises, initiates action, and persists as long as no other force comes into play to weaken it and thereby terminate action or until the planned outcome has been reached" (p. 118). Brown (2000) argues that "it is easy to assume that success in any task is due simply to the fact that someone is motivated" (p. 160). In other words, motivation is "an inner source, desire, emotion, reason, need, impulse or purpose that moves a person to a particular action" (Chalak & Kassaian, 2010:37).

Motivation has been a major research topic within SLA for over five decades since its emergence by two Canadian social psychologists, Gardner and Lambert in 1959 (Ushioda & Dornyei, 2012). Gardner (1985) defines language motivation as "the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (p. 10). Gardner (1985) argues that motivation comprises four aspects: "a goal, effortful behavior, a desire to attain the goal and favorable attitudes toward the activity in question" (p. 50). On the other hand, Richards and Schmidt (2010) define it as "a combination of the learner's attitudes, desires, and willingness in expending effort in order to learn the second language" (p. 377).

The present study, however, adopts Gardner and Tremblay's (1994) definition of motivation as a combination of efforts paired with desire to achieve the goal of

mastering the language. This definition deals with language motivation without specifying it to a particular group of people (e.g. L2 learners) and does not confine it to a specific context (e.g. L2 learning process). It describes motivation as a trait that can characterize any individual, whether a language learner or a language user, whose desire to master the target language motivates him to do efforts to achieve his goal.

2.11.1 The Role of Motivation in Language Achievement

The role of motivation in enhancing L2 learning is unquestionable. Richards and Schmidt (2010) believe that motivation is one of the primary causes of success and failure in L2 learning. On the other hand, Oxford and Shearin (1994) illustrate that motivation is one of the key factors in SL/FL learning because it can initiate and sustain learning. With similar views, Dornyei (1994a) argues that "motivation is one of the main determinants of second/foreign language (L2) learning achievement" (p.273) that influences the rate and success of learning. Brown (2000) points that "it is easy in second language learning to claim that a learner will be successful with the proper motivation" (p. 160). Likewise, Gardner (2006, p. 241) emphasizes that "students with higher levels of motivation will do better than students with lower levels", adding that "if one is motivated, he/she has reasons (motives) for engaging in the relevant activities, expends effort, persists in the activities, attends to the tasks, shows desire to achieve the goal, enjoys the activities, and others" (Gardner, 2006, p. 243).

2.11.2 Gardner's Socio-Psychological Approach

The social psychological framework of Gardner and his Canadian associates attempted to integrate social psychology and individual psychology for the purpose of

explaining differences in motivation to master the language of another community. Gardner's and Lambert's (1972) research led them to propose two types of motivation in language learning: an integrative motivation reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture of the target language, and an instrumental motivation reflecting a pragmatic aspect and advantages of learning the target language. Founded in the bilingual social context of Canada, the field of language motivation was consistently pursued by Gardner and his associates in Canada.

Gardner's Social-Psychological model deals with four groups of variables, i.e., social milieu, individual's differences, language acquisition contexts and outcomes. Later in 1993, Gardner and MacIntyre revised Gardner's socio-educational model of SLA. Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) argue that the variables related to individual difference are influenced by some personal factors such as age, gender, previous language learning experience, linked with formal and informal language acquisition contexts, and determine linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes.

According to Guilloteaux (2007), the social-psychological framework of Gardner and his associates was dominated through the 1960s, 70s, and 80s, resulting in a wealth of empirical investigation in Canada and beyond (e.g., Gardner & Lambert 1959, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre 1991, 1993; Tremblay & Gardner 1995; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret 1997; Gardner 2001; Clement & Gardner 2001).

The studies also resulted in developing Gardners's (1985) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (later revised by Gardner in 2004), aiming to measure the key affective factors involved in learning French as a second language in Canada.

According to Guilloteaux (2007), The AMTB has contributed to the popularization of motivation research as it has been used since its publication in many different parts of the world to examine students' motivation to learn a second language (e.g., Mondada & Doehler, 2004), heritage languages (e.g., Syed, 2001), foreign languages (e.g., Inbar, Donitsa-Schmidt, & Shohamy, 2001; Ushioda, 2001), and English as a foreign and international language (e.g., Brown, Robson, & Rosenkjar, 2001; Lamb, 2004).

According to Gardner (1985), motivation is conceptualized to subsume three components, *motivational intensity, desire to learn the language,* and an *attitude towards the act of learning the language*. The present study uses the concept of motivation in Gardner's (1985) to investigate the relationship of the participants' language motivation with their use of OCSs. In order to achieve this objective, the three components of motivation suggested by Gardner (1985) will be measured. The next sub-section deals with language motivation among international students.

2.11.3 Motivation among International Students

Since the present study deals with the Yemeni postgraduates who are considered as international students in Malaysia, it is important to explore the nature of motivation experienced by international students in general. Motivation while studying abroad seems to be affected by some factors such as culture shock, culture adaptation, and establishing social networks in the host culture, which cause the international students not to interact with their host as much as expected (Bacon, 1995). Milroy (1987) defines interactions of language use while studying abroad as "social networks," or the informal social relationships contracted by an individual. Generally, this unwillingness of interaction among international students takes place as a result of

their need to maintain "social psychological security" (Pellegrino, 1998). In addition, the establishment of social networks in a new environment may be a difficult undertaking, considering that learners have to deal with elements of a host culture that they never had to deal with in their own country (Isabelli, 2004).

Principally, such behaviour leads international students to form closed, multiplex networks with their monoethnic study fellows, something which causes them to interact mostly within their monotonic territory, and thus limit their chances to interact with L2 speakers. On the other hand, study abroad learners who have open personal networks, moving outside the first language speaking territory of their fellow study abroad acquaintances, will attain contacts in the host culture (Isabelli, 2004). In a relevant observation, Dowell (1995) noted that learners in a study abroad program seem to spend a considerable amount of time participating in activities reflecting their home culture rather than engaging in many traditional host-culture activities. Dowell (1995) adds that one cannot expect that learners will be motivated to learn the target language and integrate themselves into the host culture if they find themselves in a state where segregation of the two cultures is still an integral part of their cultural outlook.

The above discussion clearly explains how the psychological and socio-cultural factors can affect individuals' motivation towards the language. The current study could be considered as a further step in explaining what kind of relationship there can be between language motivation of international students and language communication. The following section discusses language anxiety, i.e., the second

affective factor in Krashen's (1985) Affective Filter Hypothesis, which is at the same time the second independent variable in the present research.

2.12 Language Anxiety

As discussed earlier, language anxiety is argued by Krashen's (1985) Affective Filter Hypothesis to be one of the affective factors that influence the acquisition of a second language. Principally, language anxiety is considered as the main obstacle to the language acquisition (Horwitz et al., 1986). Specifically, speaking anxiety is believed by many researchers (e.g., Cheng, 2009; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Philips, 1990, 1992; &Young, 1990, 1992) to be the most anxiety-provoking one compared with reading, writing and listening. The next sub-sections discuss definition, sources and types of language anxiety, and highlight the manifestations of anxious language speakers.

2.12.1 Language Anxiety: Definition, Sources and Types

The field of psychology serves as the source form which research on anxiety has originated. Freud (1920) believed that anxiety is a feeling of impending danger that can be based on objective, neurotic, or moral threats. Objective anxiety takes place when the ego becomes overwhelmed by a real threat of an external nature or the physical world to one's well-being (e.g., an earthquake). Neurotic anxiety, however, results from the ego feeling overwhelmed by the id, which threatens to express its irrationality in thoughts and behavior (e.g., hitting someone for upsetting you). Moral anxiety, on the other hand, originates from one's fear of doing something that violates one's moral principles and codes.

Spielberger (1983) defined anxiety as the subjective feelings of tension, nervousness, apprehension, and worries associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system. Spielberger (1966) identified two sources from which stimuli anxiety comes from: internal and external. The internal stimuli are associated with feelings, thoughts and biological needs, whereas the external stimuli are related to external events or conditions that can affect the organism.

As far as language anxiety is concerned, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994b) define it as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening and learning" (p. 284). This definition is adopted by the present study as it clearly relates language anxiety to L2 speaking, since the main focus of this research is OCSs which usually employed while speaking an L2.

As far as language anxiety's sources are concerned, Horwitz et al. (1986) argue that the essential sources of anxiety are speaking and listening, especially with free and unprepared speeches, affirming that the concern about accuracy leads to language anxiety. Similarly, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) believe that errors made by some language learners who cling to making positive social impressions speaking a new language could be the source of anxiety.

Regarding its types, anxiety is basically classified into three types: trait, state and situational. Trait anxiety refers to the individual's trait of becoming anxious in any situation (Scovel, 1978; Spielberger, 1983). State anxiety, on the other hand, takes place within specific and temporary situations and fades when these situations (or

threats) come to an end (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a; & Spielberger &Vagg, 1995). Situational anxiety, however, is a specific form of anxiety that occurs consistently over time within a given situation (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a). Since language anxiety is prompted by a specific set of conditions such as public speaking or participating in class (Ellis, 2008), Horwitz et al. (1986) and Gardner (1985) distinguish language anxiety from the first two categorizations of anxiety, and they classify it as a situation-specific anxiety.

2.12.2 Manifestations of Anxious Language Speakers

Generally, language anxiety can be recognized with many manifestations such as body reactions, behavior problems, and can cause academic obstacles (Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986), and also results in some manifestations like perspiration and tension (Gardner, 1985; Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986). Horwitz et al. (1986) listed some behaviors made by FL anxious learners such as avoiding activities in class, behaving indifferently, cutting classes, delaying taking the FL courses until the last year, sitting in the last row, and eluding to speak the foreign language in class. Moreover, FL anxious foreigners are less willing to answer questions voluntarily and join speaking activities (Ely, 1986). Anxious learners are also recognized with some behavior such as nervous laughter, short answer responses, avoiding eye contact, joking (Young, 1992).

The next sub-section shows that the situation does not differ a lot with international or postgraduate students. That is because language anxiety is not limited or restricted to a particular group of individuals (e.g. school or university language learners). Rather, it is a human reaction that is associated with a specific set of conditions. Once these

conditions take place, individuals, whether school learners or adults, will definitely react. The next sub-section highlights this phenomenon among postgraduates.

2.12.3 Language Anxiety among International Students Studying Abroad

Specifically, language anxiety becomes magnified for international students who encounter the challenge of operating in a foreign language and achieving functional fitness in the academic and social settings (Persuad 1993; Cammish 1997; & Carroll 2005a). Importantly, language anxiety is believed to contribute to the choice of interaction strategies (Okorocha, 1996; Ballard & Clanchy 1997; Louie 2005).

In higher education institutions, postgraduates' language anxiety can affect the students' ability to communicate and inhibits their academic success (Brown, 2008). It causes students to feel reluctant to participate in class or seminar discussion, prefer to remain silent in class, and avoid answering questions, something which leads to frustration and irritation on the part of both students and lecturers (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997, & Brown, 2008). That is because the students, though they can minimize the amount of English spoken in their social life, cannot avoid the challenge of communicating in the classroom situations, otherwise their academic achievement can be negatively affected (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997).

In a study conducted by AlSaqqaf, Bidin and Shabdin (2014), Arab postgraduates studying in Malaysia reported to experience a slightly high anxiety while using English in the academic contexts. Communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation were reported to be the two salient types of anxiety which Arab postgraduates experienced the most (AlSaqqaf, Bidin & Shabdin, 2014). Since

Yemeni postgraduates are inherently part of the Arab students with whom they share many educational and cultural backgrounds, thus it can be argued that Yemeni postgraduates do not differ from Arab postgraduates in terms of experiencing language anxiety.

With reference to the types on anxiety highlighted above, though no big difference appears to be there between the state anxiety and the situational one, Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia seem to have a kind of situational anxiety that is provoked by situations that require participating in class or delivering speech in a presentation or conference for example. This anxiety comes as a result of the postgraduates' self-perceived lack of English proficiency and feeling ill-equipped to engage in class discussion.

Generally, Yemeni postgraduates are likely to behave like other international postgraduates who feel scared of making mistakes in the public or losing face, prefer to avoid using English, and pursue an avoidance strategy of limiting or refusing participation in class (Okorocha 1996; Ballard & Clanchy 1997; Louie 2005). This use of avoidance OCSs gives the lectures/panelists an impression that the students do not have the adequate knowledge or answers needed. Hence, the academic performance and results are highly likely to be negatively affected, and thus students become subject to get low marks.

As mentioned above, Arab postgraduates studying in Malaysia reported to suffer from communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation the most. The next sub-

section, thus, moves on to explore the concept of language anxiety as theorized by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986).

2.12.4 Horwitz et al.'s (1986) Model of Foreign Language Anxiety

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) first proposed the concept of foreign language anxiety, and classified foreign language anxiety into three categories: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation.

2.12.4.1 Communication Apprehension

Communication apprehension refers to the condition where people feel shy, anxious or afraid of communicating with others. Based on Horwitz et al. (1986), it includes "difficulty in speaking in dyads or groups (oral communication anxiety) or in public (stage fright), or in listening to or learning a spoken message (receiver anxiety)" (p.127). Horwitz et al. (1986) believe that communication apprehension plays the most important role among the three components of foreign language anxiety.

2.12.4.2 Test Anxiety

Horwitz et al. (1986) argues that test anxiety points out to that type of performance anxiety resulting from fear of failure. Individuals who suffer from test anxiety tend to set unrealistic goals, and thus, put pressure on themselves, because they believe that "anything less than a perfect test performance is a failure" (p.128). For some susceptible students, they are likely to have both communication apprehension and test anxiety simultaneously when taking oral tests.

2.12.4.3. Fear of Negative Evaluation

This type of anxiety is defined by Horwitz et al. (1986) as "apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (p.128). Horwitz et al. (1986) believe fear of negative evaluation to be boarder in scope than test anxiety because it is not confined to test-taking situations, as it may occur in any evaluative situation like interviewing for a job or speaking in a foreign language class. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) advanced that the construct of foreign language anxiety made by Horwitz et al. (1986) could be seen as a theoretical framework of foreign language anxiety.

The present study adopts Horwitz et al.'s model of language anxiety because it deals with two significant dimensions (communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation) being the commonest concerns among Arab postgraduates in Malaysia (AlSaqqaf, Bidin, & Shabdin, 2014) and based on the researchers' observation as well as the discussion the researcher used to have with her postgraduate fellows in this regard.

2.12.5 Relationship between Anxiety and Oral Performance

Anxiety is one of the affective factors affecting the performance of language learners. The relationship between anxiety and speaking is investigated by Young's (1986) study showing that anxious learners often use smaller word production than the more relaxed learners. In addition, Steinberg and Horwitz (1986), and MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a, 1994b) indicate similar results that anxious subjects often present less complex and interpretive speech. Philips (1992) finds a negative relationship between anxiety and performance when participants take an oral interview. The

results of her study show higher anxious students tend to speak less than lower anxious students in EFL classroom settings. Philips (1990) argues that anxiety negatively affects oral fluency and achievement. Anxious students are never satisfied with their achievement in the oral performance and are usually disturbed by their mistakes, attributing their errors to their anxiety (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). Similar results are suggested by Woodrow (2006) who points out to a negative relationship between in/out-of-class anxiety and oral performance. Slater et al. (2006) state that students with phobia feel much speaking anxiety when asked to speak to the audience compared with confident students.

As highlighted above, the situation is almost the same with international students studying abroad who sit silently, rarely volunteering an answer unless picked on, and avoid answering questions, and avoided eye contact (Ballard & Clanchy,1997; & Brown, 2008). All these practices contribute to inhibiting the students' academic success (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997, & Brown, 2008). The next sub-section explains, based on Krashen's (1985) Affective Filter Hypothesis, how the three variables are interrelated

2.13 The Relationship between Language Anxiety, Motivation, and OCSs

Krashen's (1985) Affective Filter Hypothesis appears relevant to this study as it clearly stresses the role of motivation and anxiety in acquiring the language and hence on performance. Krashen (1985) argues that effective language acquisition takes place only when affective variables are optimal in the following situations: (a) student's motivation is high; (b) the acquirer has high self-confidence and self-esteem; and (c) the level of anxiety is low. That is if a learner has a high motivation,

high self-confidence and low anxiety, it is easier for him to master a second language. Conversely, high anxiety and low motivation are likely to impede individuals from acquiring, retaining, and producing the target language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991c).

As far as language motivation is concerned, it was highlighted earlier that motivation is a "process whereby a certain amount of instigation force arises, initiates action, and persists as long as no other force comes into play to weaken it and thereby terminate action or until the planned outcome has been reached" (Dornyei, 1998:118). This definition implies that an individual's high language motivation will make him eager and enthusiastic to practice the language "because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (Gardner, 1985:10). Definitely, practicing language can never be communication-breakdown free. That is not only because of the highly motivated individual's different level of L2 language proficiency, but also because having communication breakdown is a common nature of human interaction. Even native speakers also employ communication strategies, even though less than FL/SL users (Kellerman, 1991; Yule & Tarone, 1990; Ellis, 1984; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989). Therefore, in order to compensate any communication problems while practicing an L2 promoted by the high motivation, individuals resort to OCSs to keep the communication channels remain open.

Conversely, highly anxious people, as explained previously, use smaller word production and tend to avoid being involved in any speaking activity. This implies that the amount of speech production by anxious people is likely to be lesser, which will, in turn, results in fewer chances of communication obstacles which also mean

fewer OCSs. In addition, since anxiety negatively affects oral fluency (Philips, 1990), this entails that highly anxious people are likely to produce incomprehensible or unclear words or statements that will push their interlocutors to seek to OCSs in order to get the meaning across.

Hence, language motivation and language anxiety are associated with the quality and quantity of speech produced by L2 speakers are likely to cause communicative problems to L2 speakers and their interlocutors due to the reasons mentioned above. As a result, both L2 speakers and interlocutors will resort to OCSs to solve any breakdown in their communication.

Thus, the purpose of this study is to determine the relationship of motivation and anxiety with the use of OCSs by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. The previous sections reviewed a large number of studies conducted to examine the OCS use per se as well as to investigate the differences in the OCS use based on the demographic variables of the respondents. The following sections shed light on research conducted to determine the relationship between the OCS use with the language motivation and language anxiety.

2.13.1 The Relationship between Language Motivation and OCSs Use

Reviewing literature reveals a dearth in research exploring the relationship between language motivation and the use of OCSs. For example, Lugo (2000) examined the influence of instrumental and integrative motivation on communication strategy use among high and low-proficiency English as a second Language learners. The participants were 20 students registered in the conversational English course at the

University of Puerto Rico. Results indicated that students did not necessarily have to be instrumentally or integratively motivated in order to be successful in the second language, and that the motivation type influenced the choice of strategies.

Some weaknesses, however, can be found in Lugo's (2000) study. Regarding the motivation measure used in her study, Lugo (2000) mentioned that 22 statements were used, adding that "*some* of the statements used in this part were adapted from Dornyei (1990)" (p.37). However, Lugo (2000) did not explain from which instrument she adopted the remaining other statements. In addition, she did not refer to any process taken to establish the validity and reliability of the instrument used.

In another study, Huang (2010) investigated the role of motivation together with other demographic variables (i.e., gender, language proficiency, self-perceived oral proficiency, the frequency of speaking English outside the classroom) on the OCSs use. Huang (2010) found that motivation was positively related to OCS use and the best predictor of oral OCS. Huang concluded that generating motivation is one of the top priorities in helping students develop effective OCSs and improve their communicative competence. Huang (2010) believes that the multifaceted nature of motivation needs further investigation. He also affirms that there are complex and various factors affecting the choice of OCSs such as personality, years of English learning experience, the environment, and psychology.

However, a number of weaknesses can be also found in Huang's (2010). It can be argued that Huang's study was not an investigation of the role of motivation on the OCS use in the real sense. That is because no independent measure of motivation was

involved in the instrument so as to establish for comprehensive investigation regarding the role of motivation in the OCSs use. Surprisingly, in Huang's (2010) words, "motivation was gauged by one item: I enjoy speaking English" (p. 93). As a matter of fact, this can question the findings obtained from his study. Furthermore, the study lacks any theoretical framework that can explain the relationship between motivation and OCSs use.

These weaknesses together with the dearth in OCS research that investigates the relationship between motivation and OCS make it necessary for future research to focus on the relationship between the use of OCSs and motivation. Huang (2010) states that motivation is multifaceted and the relationship between OCSs and motivation should be further investigated from other aspects. This is actually one of the objectives of this study. The following sections reviews the relevant research conducted to determine the relationship between the OCS use with the language motivation and language anxiety.

2.13.2 The Relationship between Language Anxiety and OCSs Use

Like the paucity perceived in the research investigating the relationship between language motivation and OCSs use, reviewing literature reveals a similar dearth in research exploring the relationship between language anxiety and the use of OCSs. To the researcher's best knowledge, only two studies by Tiono and Sylvia (2004) and Li (2010) examine the relationship between language anxiety and OCSs use.

Tiono and Sylvia (2004) attempted to find out the types of OCSs mostly used by 30 undergraduate students with high and low levels of communication apprehension and

whether highly anxious students used more communication strategies. The subjects were asked to retell a pictorial story and a pictorial instruction. The results showed that students with high communication apprehension level used more numbers of communication strategies.

The problem with Tiono and Sylvia's (2004) study is the use of only 12 OCSs. That is because a total of 30 subjects individually performing a 10-to-20 minute oral presentation could have allowed for the use of a larger number of OCSs than the 12 ones chosen. Thus, many OCSs could have been used by the subjects but were skipped or ignored during the data analysis. In addition, the authors mentioned that the subjects were allowed to appeal for help when facing a difficulty communicating a particular term or message, though *appeal for help* is an OCS identified in the OCS literature but was not included in the 12 OCSs chosen in their study.

In the second study, Li (2010) examined the relationship between speaking anxiety and speaking strategies among 309 non-English freshmen and sophomores from a Taiwanese university of education. Li (2010) reported that subjects who learnt English earlier had lower test and communication apprehension while speaking English, and that the subjects who started learning English from junior high school significantly employed more 'reduction strategy' than those who began learning English from kindergarten.

As can be seen, Tiono and Sylvia's (2004) and Li's (2010) studies have yielded contradicting results. While Tiono and Sylvia (2004) reported that students with high

communication apprehension level used more numbers of communication strategies, Li (2010) argues that highly anxious students tended to use less OCSs.

As shown above, reviewing literature reveals an extreme lack of research investigating the relationship between OCSs and language motivation and anxiety. In addition, hardly any study has incorporated the three variables (OCSs, motivation and speaking anxiety). Exploring how these variables work together can contribute to better understanding of how these factors affect the OCSs use, which is among the goals that the present study attempts to achieve. The most appropriate design to accomplish this goal is to adopt a quantitative approach with a questionnaire-based survey.

Woodrow (2010) argues that motivation is "a latent construct that cannot be observed directly so it depends on self-reported measures such as questionnaires" (p. 304). Similarly, different feelings of fear and apprehension associated with language anxiety need a self-reported measure to be investigated.

The quantitative approach has been the most commonly used methods in L2 motivational research because of the "initial influence of social psychology and a concomitant emphasis on results that are reliable, replicable, and generalizable to different types of L2 learner populations" (Musleh, 2010, p. 106). Qualitative or interpretive methods are not yet commonly used in L2 motivation research, although they have been advocated over the past decade (e.g., Dornyei, 2001b, & Ushioda, 1996). Based on that, adopting a quantitative approach with questionnaire-based survey for the present study was the most appropriate design that could manage to

achieve the purposes of this study. Generally, results of the literature review led to the following framework to be designed.

2.14 Theoretical Framework of the Study

Based on the literature review and the subsequent theoretical gaps identified in the OCSs research, the research framework of the current study was designed. The present research used the framework shown in Figure 2.3 below to test the hypotheses postulated.

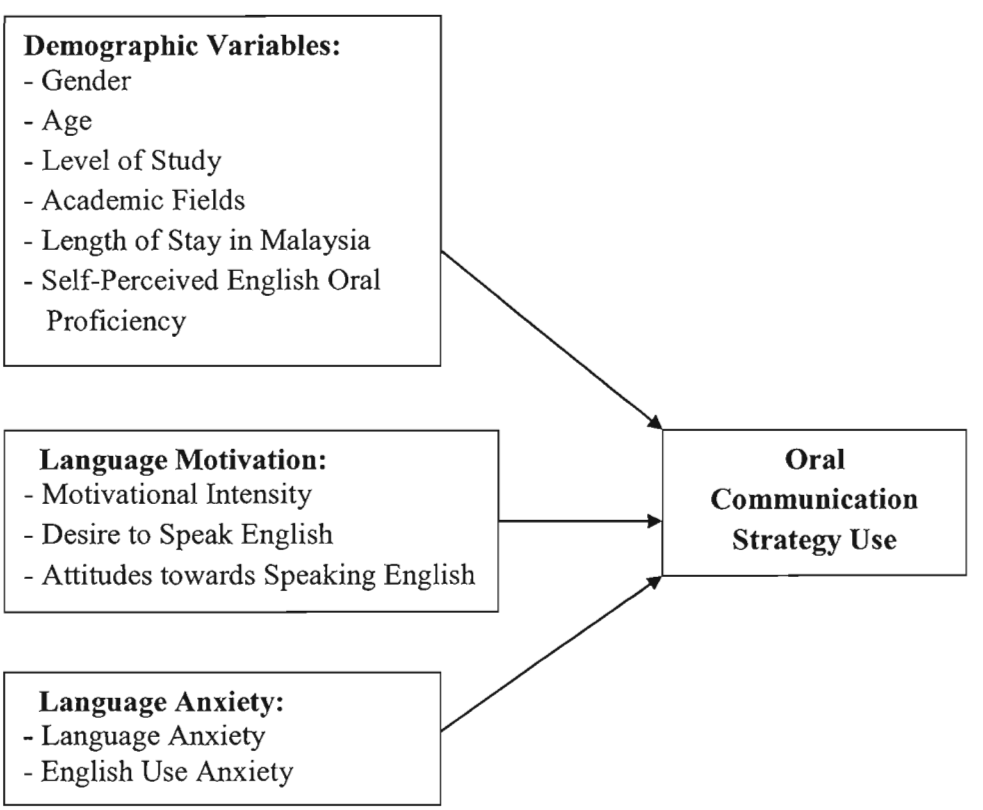


Figure 2.3. Theoretical framework of the present study

2.15 Hypotheses Development

Based on the relevant literature reviewed above, this section sheds light on the hypotheses development that comes in line with the research questions and objectives of the study reported in Chapter One. The following sub-sections discuss the hypotheses that were tested in this study. All the statements of the hypotheses are in the alternative forms.

2.15.1 The Relationship between the OCS use and Language Motivation

As stated previously, very few studies examined the relationship between language motivation and the use of OCSs. Lugo (2000) reported that the motivation influenced the choice of strategies. In addition, Huang (2010) found that motivation is positively related to OCS use and the best predictor of oral OCS. On the other hand, Huang (2010), Mei and Nathalang (2010), Wannaruk (2003), and Guans (2008) recommended to investigate motivation as a variable that can have a role to play with the use of OCSs.

Hence, based on the results obtained by Lugo (2000) and Huang (2010) together with the recommendation to investigate the role of motivation in the OCSs use, the following hypothesis was forwarded to be tested:

H_1: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation

2.15.2. The Relationship between the OCS use and Language Anxiety

As mentioned above, the studies conducted to examine the relationship between the use of OCSs and language anxiety are very few. Tiono and Sylvia (2004) and Li (2010) obtained mixed results. While Tiono and Sylvia (2004) reported that students with high communication apprehension level used more numbers of communication strategies, Li (2010) found that highly anxious students tended to use less OCSs. Therefore, the discussion highlighted above led to the following hypothesis to be proposed:

H_2: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language anxiety.

2.15.3 The OCS Use and the Demographic Variables

A review of the relevant OCS literature shows that researchers have obtained different results as to the impact of the demographic variables on the use of OCSs. While Huang (2010) and Lai (2010) reported that gender hardly had any influence on the frequency of OCS, Li (2010) found that gender played a role in the OCS use.

As for the impact of the academic field on the use of OCSs, Mei and Nathalang's (2010) reported no statistically difference of the OCS use by the participants from the Sciences and those from the Arts. Self-perceived oral proficiency was also found to have an impact on the use of OCSs some differences as Al-Samawi (1995) and Huang (2010) reported a significant difference between self-perceived oral proficiency and the OCSs use. In addition, Al-Samawi (1995) found that the length of stay in L2 culture was related to the use of certain replacement strategies. Thus,

based on the previous discussion, the following hypotheses were proposed to be empirically tested:

H_3: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia based on their demographic variables.

H_3a: Male and female Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia significantly differ in their use of OCSs

H_3b: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different age groups

H_3c: Master and PhD Yemeni students studying in Malaysia significantly differ in their use of OCSs

H_3d: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different academic fields.

H_3e: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different lengths of stay in Malaysia

H_3f: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different self-perceived English oral proficiency

2.16 Summary of Chapter Two

This chapter has provided the theoretical background of communication strategies. It was divided into four main sections. The first section dealt with the communication strategies, where a number of taxonomies of communication strategies were analyzed, specifically those by Tarone (1977), Bialystok (1983), Faerch and Kasper (1983a)

and Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b). The second section reviewed the OCSs related studies, whereas the third and fourth sections provided the theoretical frameworks of language motivation and language anxiety respectively being the two affective factors whose influences on the OCS use are attempted to be investigated by the present study. Finally, based on the reviewed literature, the theoretical framework of the study was drawn and the hypotheses were developed to be tested. The following chapter discusses the methods and techniques adopted in the research, together with the research design, sample size, the instruments used data collection procedures. Most significantly, it also provides the results of the pilot study and prepares the data obtained from the main study through preliminary analysis.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methods and techniques adopted in the present study. It delineates the research design and describes the sample size and the instruments used. It also explains the procedures taken to develop the items needed in the OCS measure and reports the results of the pilot study. Moreover, this chapter discusses the data collection procedures, and describes the processes of preparing the data obtained from the main study which includes screening the data, performing preliminary analysis to check the missing data, test the normality and assess the outliers, and examining the reliability of the instrument used. Finally, this chapter sheds light on the techniques of data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

This study aimed to investigate the OCSs used most by Yemeni postgraduate students in Malaysia. Furthermore, it attempted to determine if there was any relationship between the use of oral communication strategies with language motivation, language anxiety, and the demographic variables of Yemeni postgraduates. Thus, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What types of oral communication strategies do Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia use most in their English oral communication?
2. To what extent, is there a relationship between language motivation and oral communication use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia?

3. To what extent, is there a relationship between language anxiety and oral communication use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia?
4. Is there any difference in the use of oral communication strategies among Yemeni postgraduates based on their demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, level of study [i.e., MA or PhD], academic field, length of stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived English oral proficiency)?

This study was designed as a quantitative research. The following sub-section discusses the rationale for adopting a quantitative approach by the present study.

3.2.1 Rationale for Adopting a Quantitative Approach for the Present Study

This study seeks to make a generalization about the use of OCSs by Yemeni postgraduate students in Malaysia, and about the relationships between their OCS use with language motivation, language anxiety, and their demographic variables. According to Creswell (2008) and Dornyei (2007), the quantitative approach is usually employed when seeking to make a generalization about the population of the study. Thus, adopting a quantitative approach is the most appropriate design for the present study in order to achieve its objectives.

Regarding its nature and the data obtained through it, Dornyei (2007) states that the quantitative approach is "systematic, rigorous, focused and tightly controlled, involving precise measurement and producing reliable and replicable data that is generalizable to other contexts" (p.34). Dornyei (2007) also emphasizes that the quantitative approach provides some "built-in quality" checks and indices (like statistical significance) that enable readers to judge about the validity of the

quantitative findings. Furthermore, Dornyei (2007), Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), and Newbay (2010) affirm that the research process is relatively quick and offers good value for money and economic in terms of labor. The next section, thus, provides an identification of the dependent and independent variables adopted in the present study.

3. 3 Dependent and Independent Variables in the Present Study

A dependent variable (DV) refers to the variable that is expected to respond to or be affected by changes in other variables called the independent variables (IVs) (Creswell, 2008). Taking into consideration that motivation and anxiety are the antecedents of action, and that the main aim of the present research was to investigate relationships between Yemeni postgraduates' language motivation and language anxiety, using a scale that measures the respondents' motivation and anxiety was more likely to draw meaningful inferences about the hypothesized link between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates and their language motivation and language anxiety.

Consequently, the dependent variable selected for this study was the OCS use, whereas the independent variables were the students' affective factors, language motivation and language anxiety. The next sub-section moves on to review the research hypotheses targeted to be tested by the present study.

3.3.1 Research Hypotheses

This study aimed to investigate the OCSs used most by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia, and attempted to find out if there was any relationship between

their OCS use with language motivation, language anxiety, and their demographic variables. Based on the purposes of this study, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H_1: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation.

H_2: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language anxiety.

H_3: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different demographic variables.

H_3a: Male and female Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia significantly differ in their use of OCSs.

H_3b: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different age groups.

H_3c: Master and PhD Yemeni students studying in Malaysia significantly differ in their use of OCSs.

H_3d: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different academic fields.

H_3e: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different lengths of stay in Malaysia.

H_3f: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different self-perceived English oral proficiency.

The present study adopted a questionnaire survey to measure the relationship among the different variables. It is important to mention here that Dornyei (2007) reminds that questionnaires are often referred to under different names such as inventory, survey, scale, battery, checklist, schedule, profile, indexes/indicators, test, and forms. (p. 102). Therefore, this study will use the terms *survey* and *questionnaire* interchangeably. The rationale for adopting a survey in the present study is discussed below.

3.4 Rationale for Using a Questionnaire Survey for the Present Study

Wagner (2010) and Newby (2010) argue that survey research is a very powerful tool that has long had an important role in the field of applied linguistics and most prominently provided valuable insights in different constructs such as learner beliefs (e.g., Horwitz, 1988), learning strategies (e.g., Chamot and Kupper, 1989), and L2 motivation (e.g., Gardner, 1985; & Dornyei, 2001). Wagner (2010) affirms that survey research instruments usually enable researchers to "operationalize and consequently measure these constructs" (p. 22). Moreover, questionnaires can be administered to a large number of respondents and can be objectively scored (Wagner, 2010; & Mertens, 2005). The above discussion dealt with the advantages of questionnaires in general. The following sub-sections, however, discuss how a questionnaire is an appropriate and effective measure that fits the nature of the variables included in the present study.

3.4.1 Appropriateness of a Survey for the Variables of the Present Study

This sub-section is divided into two parts. The first part explains how a survey is appropriate to the OCS nature, while the second one discusses the appropriateness of a survey for the nature of language motivation and language anxiety.

3.4.1.1 Appropriateness of the Survey for the OCS Nature

Oxford (1996) emphasizes that questionnaires are among the most efficient and comprehensive ways to assess the frequency of the language learning strategy use. Since the present research aims to assess the frequency of the OCSs used by Yemeni postgraduate students in Malaysia, then using a questionnaire is the most appropriate to best achieve this objective rather than using qualitative tasks. Furthermore, questionnaires can be administered to a large number of respondents and can be objectively scored (Wagner, 2010; & Mertens, 2005).

Significantly, the nature of OCS use requires the present study to utilize a questionnaire. That is because it is highly likely for respondents not to reflect on all the OCSs they use during performing qualitative tasks, though they could be aware of those OCSs if asked consciously by answering a questionnaire (Mei, 2009). Although the qualitative tasks can elicit a number of the OCSs used by the participants, the obtained results may not give a comprehensive picture of the actual use of the OCSs because these tasks depend on the respondents' performance as the source of the data. Therefore, it can be expected that this performance may not utilize all the OCSs the participants actually use. Additionally, the duration of performing those tasks usually takes few minute. This short time also supports the claim that the respondents may not be able to employ all the OCSs they use within few minutes time. Therefore, in

order to avoid such a situation in which the reality and accuracy about the use of OCSs might not be reflected on, and in order to make sure that all the OCSs the students use are detected, a questionnaire can be the best applicable research tool to elicit the OCSs for the current study.

In addition, the nature of OCSs has made it inevitable for the current research to use a questionnaire to identify the OCSs used by the respondents. As Kasper and Kellerman (1997) argue, the OCSs are considered underlying psychological processes with no logical necessity for their behavioural outcomes to be clearly observable in speech. *Meaning replacement* can be a good example that is in line with Kasper and Kellerman's (1997) above argument. *Meaning replacement* takes place when the speaker feels incapable of saying what he has planned to say, and thus he replaces with a simpler expression (e.g. saying *our library uses new development* instead of *our library keeps pace with the latest sophisticated development*). Thus, upon receiving similar examples, how can the researcher determine that the respondents has produced such sentences due to his inability to say what he has planned to say, and not because of any other reason such us *literal translation*, for example? Consequently, only a direct question can determine about such a use of OCSs.

Importantly, there are some OCSs (e.g. topic avoidance) that are too difficult to identify from the speakers' utterances and the context (Rababah, 2001). For instance, *Topic avoidance*, as described by Tarone (1980), occurs when "the learner simply does not talk about the concepts for which the vocabulary or other meaning structure is not known" (p. 429). Hence, the question is: how to be able to determine that the speaker did not talk about a particular topic because he lacked the proper linguistic

knowledge, and not because he was not interested in the topic or did not have necessary information, for example? Consequently, a questionnaire can solve this problem as it results in self-reported data that give the respondents the chance to express their preferences and linguistic behaviour in using OCSs.

Finally, reviewing literature has shown the vast majority of OCS research (e.g. Tarone, 1977; Varadi, 1980; Bialystok, 1983; Tarone and Yule, 1987; Poulisse, 1990; Poulisse, 1997; Rababah, 2001; Waanaruk, 2003;, and Binhayeeraong, 2009) has adopted qualitative methods in investigating the OCS use. Therefore, this study with its purely quantitative design can provide an additional reference to validate the previous results of OCS qualitative studies.

Based on the justifications discussed above, it can be argued that more accurate data about the OCS use can be elicited by a questionnaire. Thus, adopting a questionnaire will enable the present study to assess the frequency of OCSs used by the Yemeni postgraduate students in Malaysia, and avoid the situations in which OCSs cannot be identified by the study or reflected by the respondents. The following sub-section discusses how a questionnaire is also an appropriate and effective measure that fits the nature of language motivation and language anxiety, the independent variables included in the present study.

3.4.1.2 Appropriateness of the Survey for the Nature of Language Motivation and Language Anxiety

Woodrow (2010) argues that motivation is "a latent construct that cannot be observed directly so it depends on self-reported measures such as questionnaires" (p. 304).

Similarly, different feelings of fear and apprehension associated with language anxiety need self-reported measure to be investigated.

The quantitative approach has been the most commonly used methods in L2 motivational research because of the "initial influence of social psychology and a concomitant emphasis on results that are reliable, replicable, and generalizable to different types of L2 learner populations" (Musleh, 2010, p. 106). Qualitative or interpretive methods are not yet commonly used in L2 motivation research, although they have been advocated over the past decade (e.g., Dornyei, 2001, & Ushioda, 1996).

Based on that, adopting a quantitative approach with a questionnaire-based survey for the present study was not only the best design possible that could manage to achieve the purposes of this study, but also constituted a partial contribution for this study. The next section, thus, moves on to discuss the sampling of the current research.

3.5 Sampling

This study attempted to explore the OCSs used most by Yemeni postgraduate students in Malaysia as well as to identify whether there was any relationship between their OCS use with language motivation, language anxiety, and their demographic variables. A web-based survey was used to achieve the study objectives. Creswell (2008) points out that survey researchers need to define three terms: a) the population, b) the target population (or sampling frame), and c) the sample (p.393). The following sections discuss these three aspects of the sampling.

3.5.1 Population of the Study

Creswell (2008) considers the population as the broadest level at which a group of individuals shares one characteristic that distinguishes them from other groups. Or simply, the population is the group of people whom the study is about (Dornyei, 2007). Thus, the population of this study comprised all Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia whose number reached about 544 postgraduate students, based on the statistics provided by Yemen's Embassy in Kuala Lumpur (see Appendix A) Consequently, this number constituted the population of this study.

3.5.2 The Target Population (Sampling Frame)

Creswell (2008) and Dornyei (2007) lay stress on the fact that a researcher does not always study an entire population. In Dornyei's words, 'only census does this'! That is due to the difficulties in either identifying the individuals or obtaining lists of names. Therefore, the researcher studies a target population (or the sampling frame) which lies in a more specific level than the population. Sampling frame is defined as "a group of individuals with some common defining characteristic that the researcher can identify and study" (Creswell, 2008, p. 152). Based on the statistics provided by Yemen's Embassy, the vast majority of Yemeni postgraduate student are enrolled in the following Malaysian universities: Universiti Malaya (UM), Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM), Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM), and Universiti Teknologi Mara (UiTM). Accordingly, the sampling frame of this study was Yemeni postgraduates studying in the above-mentioned universities.

Regarding the issue of representativeness, Dornyei (2007) affirms that the representativeness issue is crucial because "the strength of the results we draw from the results obtained from a selected small sample depends on how accurately the particular sample represents the larger population" (p. 96). Therefore, since the highest percentage of Yemeni postgraduates were found in the above-mentioned universities, those students were representatives of the population under study, which enables the researcher to draw conclusions from the sample about the population as a whole.

3.5.3 The Sample

This section sheds light on the sampling design and the sample size adopted in the present study.

3.5.3.1 The Sampling Design

This study attempted to explore oral communication strategies used most by Yemeni postgraduate students in Malaysia and to identify whether there was any relationship between their OCS use with language motivation, language anxiety together with their demographic variables. Therefore, in order to achieve the purposes of the study, and to meet the requirement of utmost representativeness mentioned above, the simple random sampling was adopted. Dornyei (2007) affirms that "random samples are almost always more representative than non-random samples" (p.97). This kind of sampling is the most rigorous probability sampling from a population that gives any individual an equal chance to be selected from the population (Dornyei & Csizér, 2012; Dornyei, 2007; Wagner, 2010; & Creswell; 2008). Furthermore, it is based entirely on this equal chance rather than on any extraneous or subjective factors,

which results in a sufficiently large sample that is generally believed to contain subjects whose characteristics are similar to the population as a whole; thus it ensures drawing conclusions about the population as a whole (Dornyei & Csizér, 2012; Dornyei, 2007; Wagner, 2010; & Creswell; 2008).

3.5.3.2 The Sample Size

Some research-method scholars (e.g., Wagner, 2010, Mertens, 2005; Newby, 2010) do not give a definite rule as to the sample size of a given population. Roscoe's (1975) rule of thumb states that a sample size larger than 30 and less than 500 hundred is appropriate for most research, whereas Dornyei's (2007) rule of thumb argues that the minimal sample size for a survey should be about 100 participants (p. 99).

Researchers provide a number of sampling tables, such as those suggested by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) or Cohen (1969). However, this study followed a more recent sampling table by Bartlet, Kotrlik and Higgins' (2001) for determining the minimum returned sample size for a given population size (see Appendix B). Bartlet et al. (2001) point out that the sample size for a population of 600 with a 3% margin of error and a 0.1 alpha level (which reflects high standards) should be at least 155. Since the population of the present study was around 544, the sample size was around 155 participants. The next section provides a detailed explanation of the instrument used by the current research.

3.6 The Instrument

The instrument used in the current study was a survey containing three scales: an OCS use scale, a motivation scale, and language anxiety scale. As far as the language motivation and language anxiety scales are concerned, some scales from Gardner's (1985) AMTB (2004 version) and Horwitz's (1986) FLCAS were adopted respectively to measure the Yemeni students' language motivation and language anxiety.

Regarding the OCS measure, Nakatani's (2006) OCSI was supposed to be used to measure all the OCSs included in the OCS taxonomy selected for the present study. However, it was found out, as will be explained later, that there was a need to develop some items in order to be able to measure all the OCSs included in the study's taxonomy. The following sub-sections discuss the scales used to measure the Yemeni students' language motivation and language anxiety, followed by an illustration of the reasons for developing new items for the OCS measure and the procedures taken in the development process.

3.6.1 The Language Motivation Measure for the Present Study

Gardner's (1985) AMTB, later reviewed by Gardner himself in 2004, is considered as the most widely used and "rigorous measurement instruments with good psychometric properties" (Ushioda & Dornyei's, 2012, Woodrow, 2010). For decades, AMTB has been adapted for use in a variety of L2 contexts such as Croatian, Japanese, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, and Iranian (Ushioda & Dornyei, 2012; Guilloteaux, 2007). Gardner (1985) mentions that the median reliability for the instrument is .85, which indicated highly acceptable consistency and reliability.

Gardner (1985) theorizes that motivation is conceptualised to subsume three components, *motivational intensity, desire to learn the language,* and an *attitude towards learning the language*. Therefore, in order to achieve the second objective of this study concerning investigating the relationship of the participants' motivation with the use of OCSs, this study adopted the three scales in Gardner's (2004) AMTB measuring the above-mentioned three constructs of motivation as explained below.

3.6.1.1 Adapting Three Constructs from Gardner's AMTB (2004 Version)

As mentioned previously in Chapter Two, The AMTB has contributed to the popularization of motivation research as it has been used since its publication in many different parts of the world to examine students' motivation to learn a second language (Guilloteaux, 2007). A number of Gardner's (2004) AMTB items under the three constructs adopted in the present study needed to be adapted in order to suit the sample's characteristics and context. For instance, some items in the motivational-intensity construct in Gardner's AMTB needed to be excluded as they do not suit the sample's context as users of English. For example, the item *I put off my English homework as much as possible* was not applicable to the respondents who were not learners of English. In addition, some items needed to be modified. For instance, the word *learn* in the three scales was replaced with the word *speak*. Such modifications made the items more practical and reflected the real context. As a result, 13 items were adopted and modified from Gardner's (2004) AMTB to measure the respondents' motivation.

It is important to mention here that the motivation measure in this study was translated into Arabic language during the process of translating the OCS measure and it was simultaneously subject to all the processes included in the content validity step such as the examination of a panel of three judges for the content validity, consulting external reviewers and interviewing a number of UUM students to assess the naturalness of the translated version (see Sub-section 3.7.2). Table 3.1 presents the adapted items included in this study to measure the sample's motivation.

Table 3.1

Language Motivation Measure Included in the Survey of the Present Study

Construct	**Items**	**Source**
Motivational Intensity	1. I try to understand all the English words I see and hear. 2. When I have a problem understanding something in my English articles/books, I always seek dictionaries/ internet etc. for help. 3. I really try my best to speak in English.	Gardner's AMTB (2004 Version)
Desire to Speak English	4. I have a strong desire to know all aspects of English. 5. If it were up to me, I would spend all of my time speaking English. 6. I want to speak English so well that it will become natural to me. 7. I would like to speak as much English as possible. 8. I wish I could speak English very well.	Gardner's AMTB (2004 Version)
Attitudes towards Speaking English	9. Speaking English is really great. 10. I really enjoy speaking English. 11. English is a very important part of the postgraduate program. 12. I plan to speak as much English as possible. 13. I love speaking English.	Gardner's AMTB (2004 Version)

3.6.2 The Language Anxiety Measure for the Present Study

As mentioned above, the present study aimed to investigate OCSs used most by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and to identify whether there was any relationship between their OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety. In order for a language anxiety measure to suit the characteristics of the study sample, the study used a measure comprising items from Horwitz et al.'s (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and items from the construct *English use anxiety* in Gardner's (2004) AMTB.

3.6.2.1 Adapting Items from Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS and Gardner's AMTB (2004 Version)

FLCAS is widely used in a great number of studies (Horwitz, 2001). The measure investigates participants' communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Similar to Gardner's (2004) AMTB, a number of the items in FLCAS needed to be modified in order to suit the sample's characteristics and context. For example, the item *I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class* was modified to become *I feel unsure of myself when I am speaking English in my classes/ presentations/ seminars/ workshops / etc.*

Yet, there were still some items which were not suitable for the respondents of this study even with the help of a considerable modification. That is because those items represent the context of learning English as a subject rather than the context of using English as a medium of instruction in the tertiary-level contexts (e.g., the item *I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class*). Accordingly, such

items had to be excluded. As a result, 19 items from Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS were found to be suitable for the respondents of the present study.

On the other hand, the *English use anxiety* construct in Gardner's (2004) AMTB was also added to the language anxiety scale in the survey of the present study because it includes items that deal with language anxiety outside the classroom. There are items that reflect aspects of anxiety in the everyday communicative situations such as *it would bother me if I had to speak English on the telephone,* and *I would feel quite relaxed if I had to give street directions in English,* something that is lacked in Horwitz et al.'s scale.

As a result, 24 items were chosen to represent the language anxiety variable in the present study. It is also important to mention here that the language anxiety measure in this study was also translated into Arabic language during the process of translating the OCS measure and it was simultaneously subject to all the processes included in the content validity step such as the examination of a panel of three judges for the content validity, consulting external reviewers and interviewing a number of UUM students to assess the naturalness of the translated version (see Sub-section 3.7.2). Table 3.2 presents the items used from Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS and Gardner's (2004) English use anxiety in his AMTB to measure the respondents' language anxiety.

Table 3.2

Language Anxiety Measure Included in the Survey of the Present Study

Construct	Items	Source
Language Anxiety	1. I feel unsure of myself when I am speaking English in my classes/presentations/ seminars/ workshops / etc.	Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS
	2. I worry about making language mistakes while speaking English in my classes/ presentations/ seminars/ workshops / etc.	
	3. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	
	4. I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.	
	5. I get nervous when I do not understand every word my lecturer/ supervisor /examiner says.	
	6. I start to panic when I have to speak English without preparation during my classes/ seminars/ workshops/ etc.	
	7. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	
	8. I feel self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	
	9. I get nervous when I am speaking in English in my classes/presentation etc.	
	10. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to use to speak English.	
	11. It frightens me when I do not understand the English that my lecturer/supervisor is saying in classes/ meetings etc.	
	12. I tremble when I know that I am going to be called on in my classes/ seminars/workshops etc.	
	13. I can get so nervous in my class/presentation etc., that I forget things I know.	
	14. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in class/ conference/ workshop etc.	
	15. Even if I am well prepared for my presentation etc., I feel anxious about it.	
	16. The more I prepare for my presentations, the more confused I get.	
	17. I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in class/ conference/ workshop.	
	18. I often feel like not going to my classes/ conferences etc. in which I have to give a presentation.	
	19. I get nervous when my supervisors/ lecturers ask questions which I have not prepared.	

English Use Anxiety	1. I would get nervous if I had to speak English to a tourist. 2. Speaking English anywhere makes me feel worried. 3. It would bother me if I had to speak English on the telephone. 4. I would feel uncomfortable speaking English anywhere. 5. I feel anxious if someone asks me something in English.	Gardner's AMTB (2004 Version)

Noticeably, some studies (e.g., Burden, 2004; Cheng, 2009; Liu & Huang, 2011; & Na, 2007) categorize Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS items into three constructs for the purpose of representing the three areas (i.e., communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety) highlighted in Horwitz et al.'s (1986). However, it can be argued that this categorization seems to lack a statistically clear base. Consequently, the researcher of the present study corresponded with E. K. Horwitz via an e-mail to inquire about this trend followed by some studies. Horwitz mentioned that:

> *In my opinion the FLCAS does not have 3 dimensions, so there is no way to differentiate it into 3 dimensions. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope 1986 only state that CA, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation are related to foreign language anxiety. In fact they argue that foreign language anxiety is different from those three constructs. If a researcher believes that there are different dimensions to the FLCAS, that hypothesis could be tested with factor analysis.*
>
> (E. K. Horwitz, personal communication, July 15, 2013).

Following Horwitz's suggestion, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed to the 19 items adopted from Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS in order to identify the latent structures (dimensions) of the anxiety variable through the use of the Principle Component Analysis (PCA) with a Varimax rotation as explained later in Sub-section

3.10.7. The next sub-section, thus, moves on to discuss the reasons for developing items to measure the OCSs included in the taxonomy of the present study.

3.6.3 Reasons for Developing Items for the OCSs Scale in the Survey of the Present Study

The questionnaire of OCSs for the present study is based on the taxonomy of OCSs adopted by the study (Table 2.9 in Chapter Two). Nakatani's OCSI (2006) was firstly supposed to measure the OCSs in the study taxonomy. Nakatani (2006) developed the OCSI to assess the frequency of speaking and listening strategies use by English learners by using two different parts: the speaking strategies part with 32 items, and the listening strategies part with 26 items.

A comprehensive examination was done by the researcher of this study to Nakatani's (2006) OCSI in order to adopt items that could best represent the OCSs in the present study's taxonomy. This examination put the definitions of each OCS adopted in the present study from the OCS literature as the criteria to decide which item from Nakatani's OCSI could represent the OCSs. For example, the OCS *literal translation*, as described by Tarone (1977), occurs when the speaker translates word for word from the native language. Based on this definition, the researcher went through every single item in Nakatani' OCSI to examine which items could best represent this strategy on the basis of the definition given by Tarone (1977). It was found that one item could serve a representative to the O*CS literal translation*, i.e., *I think first of what I want to say in my native language then construct the English sentence.*

This process of examination was carried out by the researcher for the 20 OCSs included in the present study's taxonomy. Surprisingly, this examination revealed that 11 out of the 20 OCSs that were chosen for the present study's taxonomy were not represented by any item in Nakatani's OCSI. Those 11 missing OCSs in Nakatani's OCSI are listed below:

a) Topic avoidance

b) Word-coinage

c) Retrieval

d) Use of all-purposes words

e) Use of similar-sounding words

f) Self-rephrasing.

g) Code-switching

h) Approximation

i) Restructuring

j) Circumlocution

k) Asking for confirmation

This deficit in reflecting the OCSs covered by the dominant OCS literature can be attributed to the fact that Nakatani (2006) developed his inventory based on an open-ended questionnaire to identify learners' general perceptions of strategies for oral communication. Nakatani's (2006) questionnaire was administered to a total of 80 EFL university students who were asked to complete statements such as *When I am speaking English, I pay attention to . . . , When I am listening to other people*

speaking English, I try to . . . , and, *What helps me most when I communicate with others is . . .*

As a result, Nakatani (2006) mostly relied on students' feedback to develop the items of his inventory. However, as suggested by Mei (2009), it is highly likely for respondents not to reflect on all the OCSs they use, though they could be aware of those OCSs if asked consciously by answering a questionnaire that addressing all the OCSs. For example, the OCS *code-switching*, as defined by Tarone (1977), refers to the learner's use of the native language term without bothering to translate, e.g. *tirtil* for caterpillar. However, no item in Nakatani's OCSI represents this strategy. The only item referring to using the native language is the following item:
I think first of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence.

As mentioned above, this item represents well the OCS *literal translation* which occurs when "the learner translates word for word from the native language, e .g. *He invites him to drink* for *they toast one another* (Tarone, 1977). But it cannot be used to describe *code-switching* because code switching refers to the *insertion* of an L1 word/ or words into the conversation, but the above item does not refer to this insertion. Rather, it deals with the construction or formation of English messages in the speaker's mind based on translation from L1 into L2.

Likewise, the same argument can be raised in relation to the other missing OCSs. This accounts for the absence of some OCS representation in Nakatani's (2006) OCSI, though those OCSs are identified, described and discussed in OCS literature

and taxonomies. Therefore, in order to fill this gap in the questionnaire and to meet requirements of measuring the taxonomy selected for the present study, the researcher had no choice but to develop items for the 11 OCSs missing in Nakatani's OCSI. The next section describes the framework and procedural steps followed by the researcher to develop the needed items.

3.7 Framework for Developing Items to Measure the Missing OCSs

Developing an instrument consists of several steps such as identifying the purpose of the instrument, reviewing the literature, writing the questions, and testing the questions with subjects similar to those the research plans to investigate (Creswell, 2008). Since the purpose of the instrument of the present study has been identified above and has shown the need to develop items to measure the OCSs included in the present study's taxonomy but missing in Nakatani's OCSI, this study followed a flowchart suggested by Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), Benson and Clark (1982), Creswell (2008), Oppenheim (1992), and Mertens (2005) to develop the items needed as shown in Figure 3.2 below.

The following sub-sections explain the theoretical and practical procedures carried out by the researcher of the present study to develop the items needed for the missing OCSs based on the flowchart below.

3.7.1 Step one: Constructing

3.7.1.1 Reviewing the OCS Literature and Selecting Items from Literature

The items representing the 11 OCSs were developed and designed to reflect the nature of those communication strategies based on the definition in the OCS literature and according to the most common examples identified in the literature, particularly Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b).

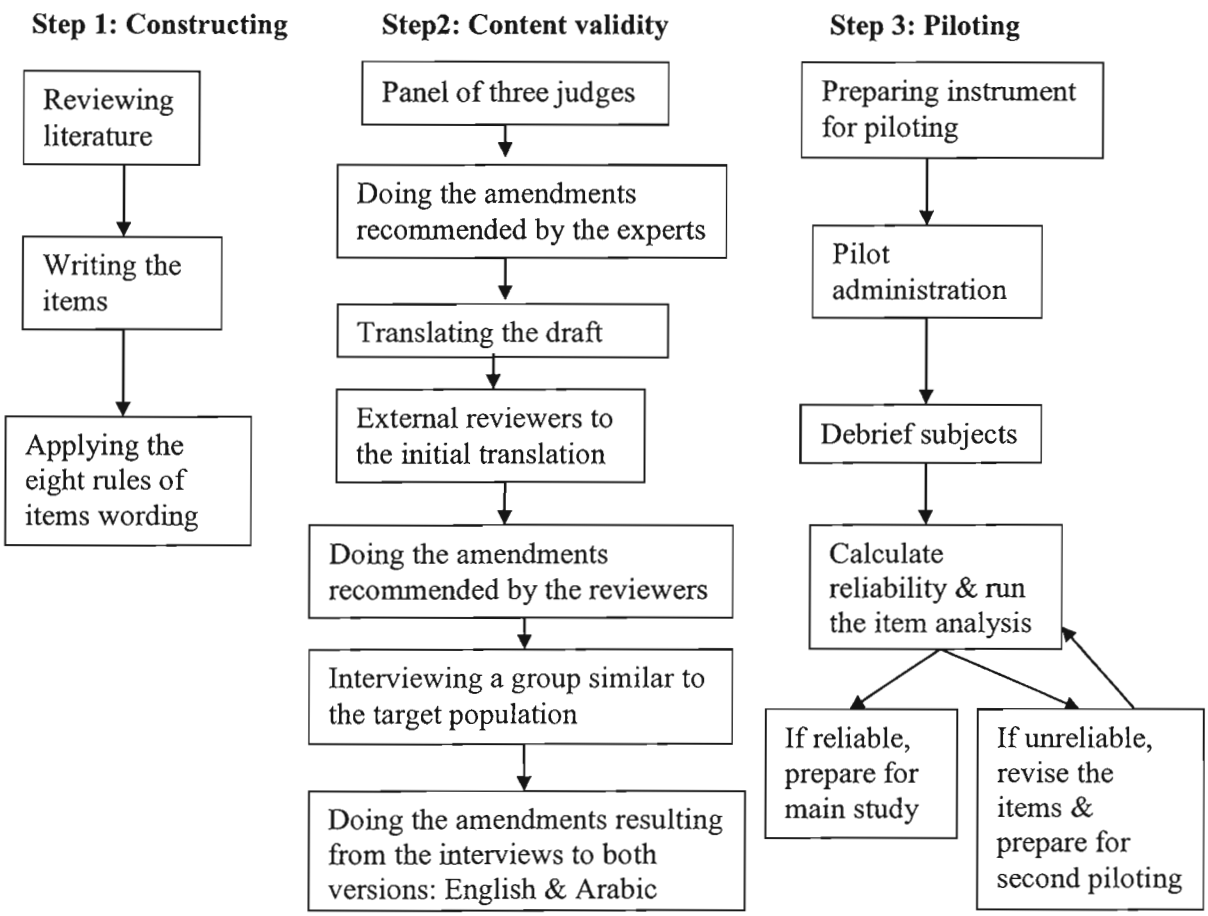


Figure 3.1. The flowchart used to develop the OCS items

To develop the items needed, the researcher first reviewed the relevant literature on OCSs to gain adequate knowledge about the nature and description of those OCSs. Then, a specific definition was adopted for each OCS so that the items going to be developed later will be based on the definitions. Table 3.3 lists the definitions adopted for the 11 OCSs.

Table 3.3

The Definitions Adopted by the Present Study for the 11 OCSs

OCSs and their Description
1. Topic Avoidance: The learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the TL item or structure is not known (Tarone, 1977).
2. Word Coinage: The learner makes up a new word in order to communicate desired concept (Tarone, 1983). Creating a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word. "e.g. *unjunktion* for "street cleaning" (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a&1995b).
3. Approximation: The use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure which the learner knows it is not correct but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker, e .g . *pipe* for *water pipe* (Tarone, 1977).
4. Circumlocution: The learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language (TL) item or structure, e.g. *She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of.* (Tarone, 1977).
5. Retrieval: In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form "e.g. *It's brake er... it's broken broked broke*" (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a&1995b).
6. Use of all-Purposes Words: Extending a general, "empty" lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking "e.g.: *I can't work until you repair my ... thing"* (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a&1995b).
7. Use of Similar-Sounding Words: Compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item '*cap'* instead of 'pan' " (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a&1995b)".
8. Self-Rephrasing: Repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase "e.g. *I don't know the material...what it's made of..."* (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a&1995b).
9. Code-Switching: The learner uses the native language term without bothering to translate "e.g. *tirtil* for caterpillar (Tarone, 1983).
10. Restructuring: Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished, and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan "e.g.. *On Mickey's face we can see the... so he's he's he's wondering*" (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a&1995b).
11. Asking for Confirmation: Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly "e.g. *You said...?, You mean...?, Do you mean...?*" (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a&1995b).

As mentioned above, the items were developed based on the definitions identified in the OCS literature. For instance, the strategy *asking for confirmation* is defined as "requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly "e.g. *You said...?, You mean...?, Do you mean...?*" (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b). In light of the definition given, an item for this strategy was developed, i.e., *to make sure that what I have heard/understood from the speaker is correct, I ask him to get confirmation (e.g., you said this is your second semester?).* In order to make the item clearer, an illustrative example from OCS literature (e.g., Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b) was attached together with the item developed. This method was applied to almost all the items developed, and illustrative examples were attached as necessary.

3.7.1.2 Applying the Eight Rules about Item Wording

Dornyei (2007), Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), Dornyei and Csizer (2012), Oppenheim (1992) and Sekaran (2003) set eight rules about item wording. The researcher tried her best to follow those rules. The next sections explain the practical processes that were taken to follow those rules.

3.7.1.2.1 Aim for Short and Simple Items

Dornyei (2007), Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), and Oppenheim (1992) recommend that the questionnaire items should not be too long. Dornyei (2007), Dornyei and Taguchi (2010) argue that items should not exceed 20 words whenever possible. As a result, the researcher attempted to adhere to this rule. However, since the nature of communication strategies deals with conversation situations in which the OCSs are employed, this implied the need to refer to two aspects: the description of the OCS

itself as well as the context in which this OCS is used. For example, the OCS *restructuring* occurs when the speaker abandons "the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished, and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan "e.g.. *On Mickey's face we can see the... so he's he's he's wondering*" (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b). This definition requires that the item under development to represent this OCS should cover four chronological steps done by the speaker:

a) Beginning a sentence

b) Inability to complete a sentence due to language difficulty

c) Leaving the sentence unfinished

d) Creating an alternative sentence and say it.

Therefore, reflecting all these four chronological steps in a short and simple item that does not exceed 20 words was one of the challenges the researcher faced during the phase of items wording. The four steps mentioned above had to be covered by one item; otherwise it would not reflect the nature of *restructuring* as described and defined in the OCS literature. As a result, it was unavoidable not to exceed 20 words. Otherwise, it would have affected the content validity of the item, because if any of the four chronological steps had been skipped during the item wording, it could have represented an OCS other than *restructuring*. For example, if the fourth step, i.e., creating an alternative sentence and say it, had been ignored, the item would thus have reflected another OCS which is *message abandonment* rather than *restructuring*. That is because *message abandonment*, which occurs when "the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid-utterance" (Tarone, 1977),

also contains the same chronological steps implied in *restructuring* except the final step of creating an alternative sentence and say it.

As a result, the researcher formulated the items within the accepted limit of 20 words where possible. It is important to mention here that the words of examples attached to most of the items were not counted because they were not considered as part of the items themselves. Rather, they were a further clarification whose function was to help make the idea clear enough to the respondents.

3.7.1.2.2 Use Simple and Natural Language

Dornyei (2007), Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), and Oppenheim (1992) stress that the items going to be developed should be clear, direct without any acronyms, abbreviations, colloquialism, proverbs or technical verbs, and should also use common language. Dornyei and Taguchi (2010) believe that "the best items are those that sound as if they had been taken from actual interview" (p.41). Therefore, the developed items of the present study attempted to meet the requirement of this rule by using the simplest words possible and used in the common language so that they looked clear and direct.

On the other hand, Oppenheim (1992) affirms that the most important rule in writing statements is to make them meaningful and interesting. The examples attached together with the items not only helped to further clarify the concept included in the item, but also were likely to create a room for interest to the respondents because they were taken from actual interaction and also referred to some of linguistic behaviour that L2 speaker adopt during daily communication. This interest was clear during the

interview in the content validity phase (as explained later), where the respondents looked interested in what they were reading and even smiled upon reading some of the examples attached with the items, making a comparison between what they were reading and their experiences in L2 communication, and sharing with the researcher some of their experience.

3.7.1.2.3 Avoid Ambiguous or Loaded Words and Sentences

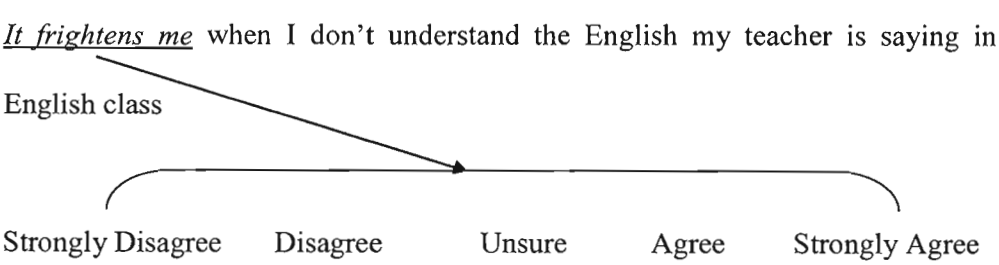
This rule can be considered as an extension to the previous rule as it deals with avoiding ambiguous words and sentences. In other words, they should be clear and direct, the idea discussed in the previous section. However, Dornyei (2007), Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), and Oppenheim (1992) add another aspect regarding the issue of bias. The authors remind that loaded words (natural free modern) should be avoided because they can cause emotional reaction and lead to bias in the answer. As mentioned above, the researcher developed her items based on the OCS definitions and descriptions given by the scholars. Accordingly, it can be argued that in such a case of developing items, the chance for possible bias, as described in this rule, hardly appears. That is due to the fact the items developed were a mere description of the linguistic behaviour L2 speakers commonly employ while interacting.

3.7.1.2.4 Avoid Negative Constructions

Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), and Oppenheim (1992) argue that the items containing a negative construction (e.g. *not*, *doesn't*) are deceptive because although they seem perfect, responding to them can be problematic. "What does a negative response to a negative question mean?", Dornyei (2007) comments, adding that computing the

meaning of negating the negation is cognitively confusing and "means that some respondents will inevitably get it wrong" (p. 42).

However, it is of great importance to mention here that Dornyei and Taguchi (2010) refer this rule to that part of the item that the whole item itself aims to measure. To make it clearer, Dornyei's (2007) example *our language classes don't prepare us for everyday communication* (p. 42) contains only one simple sentence. However, there are items which contains two parts, (such as those starting with *when*, *if*). For instance, Horwitz's (1986) FLCAS includes items such as *it frightens me when I don't understand the English my teacher is saying in the English class*. Although this items includes a negative form (i.e., *when I don't understand*), the items scale mainly aims to measure the first part of the item (i.e., *it frightens me*) within the context of the second part. In other words, the subjects' response is to be given to the main clause of the sentence (*it frightens me*) not to subordinate clause (*when I don't understand the English my teacher is saying in the English class).*



Therefore, this is the part of the item (the main clause) that Dornyei recommends not to contain negative constructions. This rule was taken into account during the phase of items wording. As a result, the main clauses of the items developed did not contain any negative construction. For example, in the item that represents the OCS *code-*

switching, i.e., *when I cannot express a particular word in English while speaking, I say it in Arabic instead*, the negative construction *I cannot* is impeded in the subordinate clause *when I cannot express a particular word in English*. As mentioned above, the participants are supposed to respond to the main clause of this item, i.e., *I say it in Arabic instead,* and show in their answer whether they do this during their communication or not.

3.7.1.2.5 Avoid Double-Barreled Questions

Do you read and understand your books? Such a question cannot be answered properly if the respondent reads but do not understand the books. This is what Dornyei (2007), Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), and Oppenheim (1992) refer to as *double-barreled questions*, where such questions usually imply two questions in one while a single answer is expected. In addition, there is no clue of predicating to which part of the question the answer has been given. This rule was also taken into consideration while formulating the items as they attempt to focus on only one idea that is not implied within a second idea.

It is important to mention here that adhering to this rule has resulted in developing two items to measure one OCS, i.e., *use of similar-sounding words*. This OCS takes place to compensate "for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item '*cap'* instead of 'pan' " (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a&1995b)". This definition implies that the speaker who is unsure of a particular lexical item may produce two types of items:

a) Existing items (e.g., *reverse* instead of reserve) due to the similarities in the pronunciation of some English words, or.
b) Non-existing items as a result of mispronouncing the target word (e.g., *extenture* instead of extinguisher).

Accordingly, two items were developed in order to differentiate between the two situations. One item was devoted to measure the use of existing similar-sounding words (labeled as *use of similar-sounding words [E]*), whereas the second focused on identifying the use of non-existing similar-sounding words (labeled as *use of similar-sounding words [N]*).

3.7.1.2.6 Avoid Items Likely to be Answered the Same Way by Everybody

Actually, this is one of the rules that can be difficult to be adhered to, simply because there are actually items that are likely to be answered the same way by almost every respondents. For example, what answer can a non-English speaking postgraduate studying in English give to the item: *I wish I were fluent in English*? It is highly likely that such a question can be answered the same way by almost every student. Nevertheless, the researcher did her best to make the items exemplify and reflect the communication behaviour as much as possible so that can be answered based on the respondents' experience since experiences and behaviors differ from an individual to another.

3.7.1.2.7 Write Translatable Items

Since the respondents of this study were non-native speakers of English, there was a need to translate the questionnaire into the respondents' mother tongue (Arabic) as

discussed later. This rule was also applied as much as possible while writing the items. As a result, as simple and clear words as possible were used in the source language so as to avoid any vague meaning that could be problematic during the translation process.

3.7.1.2.8 Include both Positively and Negatively Worded Items

Barnette (2000) states that:

> *"The survey or questionnaire designer must determine if using negatively worded items or other alternatives is needed in the context of the research or evaluation setting. Unless there is some pervasive and unambiguous reason for not doing so, it is probably best that all items be positively or directly worded and not mixed with negatively worded items." (p. 362)*

After a thorough examination of the nature and function of OCSs, it was found that including negatively worded items were not needed in the OCS survey due to the following reasons:

a) OCSs are a kind of speaking per se that is categorized as *retrieval, restructuring, code switching* etc. Consequently, including negatively worded items would have entailed that all the OCS items (that basically deal with the speech production) would be negatively worded by only one or two items that express a single opposite concept, i.e., avoiding speaking, such as *I avoid talking about points I do not know*, or *I prefer to be silent when I do not know the word.* However, avoidance is an OCS by itself that was already included in the present study's taxonomy and were represented by two items in the survey, hence the rationale not to include negatively worded items for the OCS construct.

b) It is easy to have positively and negatively worded items when investigating attitudes, feelings, and the like. For example the concept of loving learning English can be expressed positively, as suggested by Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), as: *I love learning English*, and negatively by wording it as: *English is a burden to me.* However, including negatively worded items would not suit the OCS because the purpose of the OCS survey was to elicit what communication strategies the subjects of this study employed most to convey their messages, not what OCSs they did not use. Therefore, positively worded items were highly likely to do this job simply, directly and clearly.

c) As mentioned earlier, this study adopted Nakatani's (2006) OCSI, and the items developed were supposed to represent the OCSs existent in the study's taxonomy but not represented in OCSI. Since OCSI includes only positively worded items, this entailed that the developed items should also follow the same style adopted by OCSI in order to ensure the smooth flow of the items constituting the OCS measure.

d) Importantly, recent thought schools in research methodology do not recommend including negatively worded items. Barnette (2000) concludes that "it seems clear that mixing stems and response options probably is much too confusing for many respondents and is therefore not a recommended procedure" (p. 369). Schriesheim and Hill (1981) also conclude in their study that it may not be advisable to use negatively worded items because such a practice can impair the response accuracy and reduce internal consistency reliability.

e) Besides, including negatively worded items would have caused the questionnaire to be too long, something which is highly recommended to be avoided.

3.7.2 Step Two: Content Validity

The content validity (also referred to as face validity) of an instrument refers to the extent to which the questions of an instrument measures what it aims to measure (Creswell, 2008; &, DeVellis, 2012). The content validity of the present study's instrument was established through the following steps:

3.7.2.1 Panel of Three Judges

Typically, instrument developers go to a panel of judges or experts to get them identify whether the questions are valid (Creswell, 2008; & Mertens, 2005, Dornyei, 2007). Therefore, the researcher invited three English language senior lecturers from Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM) to examine whether the items developed were accurately constructed to elicit the OCSs that the study would like to measure and whether those items were suitable for the purposes of the study and measured what the present study intended to measure. The three senior lecturers were also requested to evaluate the content validity of the survey as a whole including the other two measures of motivation and anxiety forming the instrument of the present study. Those senior lecturers are considered as language experts as their area of specialization is English language. Additionally, they did their postgraduate studies in the UK and USA, which enhanced the image of the selected panel as professional experts and also ensured the utilization of the judges' experience with English use in its native context.

A report including the aims of the present study, the taxonomy of the study along with the definitions of each OCSs followed by the items developed as well as the items measuring language motivation and anxiety was sent to the panel of judges for evaluating the content validity. The researcher sent the survey to the senior lecturers separately and later had a long discussion with them about the content validity of the instrument. The researcher had a fruitful discussion and received a useful feedback from the experts. The following sub-section highlights some examples of the feedback and suggestions given by the survey reviewers.

3.7.2.2 Doing the Amendments

Based on the feedback and suggestions obtained from the panel of judges, the researcher made the necessary amendments not only to the developed items but also to the items adopted from Nakatani's (2006) OCSI. As far as the developed items are concerned, the reviewers' feedback and suggestions abundantly contributed to the improvement of the items. For example, to represent the OCS *self-rephrasing* (defined as "repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase, e.g. *I don't know the material...what it's made of...* [Dornyei & Scott, 1995a&1995b]), the researcher first developed this item: *I repeat words/phrases, but not quite as they are, by using paraphrase.* However, one of the reviewers argued that this item needed to be contextualized. In addition, the reviewer suggested the word *paraphrase* in the developed items to be replaced with a clearer word to ensure as much clarity as possible. Discussion with the reviewer resulted in amending the item to become: *to make myself understood better, I repeat the meaning of my statements by using other words. (e.g., we must improve our English... make it much better).*

Another example is the item developed for the OCS *code-switching*, i.e., *when I cannot express a particular word/phrase in English while speaking, I say it in Arabic instead.* One of the reviewer argued that this structure was semantically confusing because the sentence *I cannot express a particular word/phrase in English* could be interpreted differently. That is because it was not clear whether the inability to express the particular word was attributed by a physical inability of pronouncing some difficult words, for example, or because of lack of a proper linguistic item. Therefore, in order to clear any ambiguity the item was amended to become: *When I lack an English word/term during a conversation, I simply say it in Arabic instead.*

A third example is related to the item developed for *retrieval*, i.e., *I attempt to retrieve (recall) missing words/phrases by saying a series of structures (words/phrases) until I reach the targeted word.* One of the panels believed this item included relatively ambiguous and difficult words such as *structures* and *retrieve*. Accordingly, the item was improved to become: *I try to recall the word I have forgotten by saying a series of similar-sounding words until I reach the word I forgot.*

Concerning the items adopted from Nakatani's (2006) OCSI, the reviewers also suggested the researcher did some modification to items adopted from Nakatani (2006) to make them abundantly clearer as well as to better represent the OCSs based on the definitions adopted. For example, the item adopted from Nakatani's OCSI to represent the OCS *comprehension check* was *I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say.* It was suggested by the reviewers to replace the noun phrase *comprehension checks* with a clearer phrase. Therefore,

based on the definition of comprehension check, i.e., "asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you, e.g. (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a&1995b), the item was modified to become: *to ensure that the listener understands/is following what I am saying, I ask him questions like "You got me?", "Understand*?", *etc.*

Another example is Nakatani's (2006) item *I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent*, which was supposed to measure the OCS *meaning replacement* defined as "substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it" (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a&1995b). However, reviewers believed that the words *message* and *executing* could be confusing, suggesting being replaced with the word *what I want* and *saying* respectively. As a result, the item was modified to become *when I feel incapable of saying what I want, I replace it with a simpler expression* (e.g., "Our library *uses the new development*" instead of "Our library *keeps pace with the latest* development").

The above discussion has shed light on some examples of the feedback and suggestions given by the survey reviewers and the actions taken to amend the items based on the feedback obtained. Thus, having made the amendments recommended by the experts, the researcher prepared a draft of the whole survey of the present study to be translated into Arabic language.

3.7.2.3. Translating the Initial Draft

Dornyei and Taguchi (2010) believe that "the quality of the obtained data increases if the questionnaire is presented in the respondents' own mother tongue" (p. 49). This

was what mainly motivated the researcher to translate the items into the target language. The translation process was achieved based on Dornyei (2007) and Dornyei and Taguchi's (2010) approach *translation with limited resources* as explained in the following sub-sections:

a) Initial Translation:

Since the researcher is a native speaker of Arabic language who also worked for five years in the Language Center at Taiz University, Republic of Yemen, as a translator from Arabic into English and vice versa, as well as a lecturer teaching English to university students of different faculties and departments in Taiz University such as the faculties of Law, Administrative Sciences, Engineering, Education, Arts, the researcher chose to do the initial translation for the draft.

b) External Reviewers

The initial translation was sent to two external reviewers who were both native speakers of Arabic and at the same time specialists in English language. The reviewers were asked to check the equivalence of the original and the translated questionnaire. The researcher first met the first reviewer who was a senior lecturer at Al-Bukhari University, Kedah, Malaysia, and whose PhD area deals with the translation from Arabic into English. The researcher had a long discussion with the first reviewer and received a good feedback from him.

The second reviewer (who is also a native speaker of Arabic and an associate professor of English syntax) was approached through emails as he was working as Head of the Arabic Program, QatarDebate at Qatar Foundation, Qatar. The

researcher received a good feedback from the second reviewer whose comments and suggestions did help improve the translation of the draft in terms of suggesting simpler terms and phrases than those having been selected by the researcher.

3.7.2.4 Interviewing a Group Similar to the Target Group

All the amendment done to the draft so far whether in the content validity stage or in the translation stage had come from people with expertise whose major concern was about the content validity. However, there was still a need to interview a group of people similar to the target group in order to check the naturalness of the translation of the survey as a whole and evaluate the face validity. The researcher interviewed a total of five Arab students from Jordan, Iraq and Libya. This group had a double task: to evaluate the face validity of the developed items particularly and the survey as a whole, and also to check the naturalness of the translation in terms of using simple and clear terms that are familiar to the common reader. The researcher first explained to the students the aim of the interview and then presented the questionnaire to them, asking them to assess whether there were any ambiguous statements. Some basic guidelines suggested by Dornyei and Taguchi (2010) were employed (p. 55). These guidelines included requesting the students to:

- Mark any item whose wording they do not like, and encouraging them to suggest for any improvement.
- Mark any item which is not completely clear and suggest modifications.
- Mark any item they consider unnecessary.
- Comment about any other aspects in the survey

Taking into consideration the comments provided by the UUM students, some of the items were rephrased in order to eliminate the confusion and increase the quality of the data of the study. It is important to mention here that the interviewees recommended not including negatively worded questions in the motivation and anxiety measures. They argued that the sample of this study were postgraduates who were considered as highly educated people who understood the nature of academic research and the importance of responding to it as accurately as possible. One of the interviewees further argued that "postgraduates are big enough not to be trapped by such (negatively worded) items". This is in line with Ellard and Rogers (1993) who reported that respondents may react negatively to items that appear to be asking the same questions because this gives them an impression that those items are there "to trick them or to check their honesty" (as cited in Dornyei and Taguchi, 2010). Accordingly, the negatively worded items were excluded from the motivation and anxiety measures (kindly refer to Table 3.1 for the motivation measure and Table 3.2 for the anxiety measure).

Following that, the researcher prepared the final draft of the survey for piloting. The survey followed the Likert type. Likert-type questionnaires are weighted surveys that enable respondents to qualify personal preferences based upon their strength of opinion (Woodrow, 2010). The Likert-type survey is used when there is a need to identify commonalities in attitudes and perceived experiences. The OCSs questionnaire for the present study was a five Likert type with 21 items that represented the different OCSs included in the study's taxonomy. In each item, there were choices ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 indicated that the participants *never* used the OCSs described by the item,

whereas 5 meant he/she *always* used it. The higher score in this communication strategy scale means that the participant uses more OCSs. Table 3.4 below presents the items adopted from Nakatani's OCSI (2006) as well as those developed to measure the respondents' OCS use.

Table 3.4

The OCS Measure Included in the Survey of the Present Study

Construct	Items	Source
I. Avoidance Strategies		
1. Topic Avoidance	I avoid talking about topics/points that may cause me face language difficulty.	Developed
2. Message Abandonment	**Original:** I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty. **Modified to:** I leave the sentence unfinished because of some language difficulty (e.g. *He was not fine, feeling er.....*).	Nakatani's OCSI (2006)
3. Meaning Replacement	**Original:** I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent. **Modified to:** When I feel incapable of saying what I have planned to say, I replace it with a simpler expression. (e.g., "Our library *brings the new development*" instead of "Our library *keeps pace with the latest* development").	Nakatani's OCSI (2006)
II. Achievement Strategies		
A. Psycholinguistic Strategies		
1. Approximation	I misuse words but they share common features with the correct word that I lack (e.g. *shoes* instead of *slippers*).	Developed
2.Mime	**Original:** I use gestures and facial expressions if I cannot communicate how to express myself **Modified to:** I use gestures and facial expressions if I cannot express myself.	Nakatani's OCSI (2006)

3.Word Coinage	I add language rules (e.g., *-ment, un-*) to words I know (e.g., *accept, honest*) in order to express the word I lack (e.g., *acceptment, unhonest*)	Developed
4. Circumlocution	When I lack a specific word, I express it by describing its characteristics/ function (e.g., bring the...*the thing we use to clean the floor*, for "broom")	Developed
5. Code-Switching	When I lack an English word/term during a conversation, I spontaneously say it in Arabic instead. (e.g. *we usually eat using the spoon and ... er shawka; we call it shawka*).	Developed
6. Literal Translation	**Original:** I think first of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence. **Modified to:** I first think of what I want to say in Arabic and then translate it into English.	Nakatani's OCSI (2006)
7. Restructuring	When I cannot complete my sentence due to language difficulty, I leave it unfinished, and express it with a new simpler sentence (e.g. *on the students' face we can see the...the... he's he's wondering*).	Developed
8. Retrieval	I try to recall the word I have forgotten by saying a series of incomplete similar-sounding words until I reach the word I forgot. (e.g. *it is break.....ah.. bro... broken... it's broken*).	Developed
9. Use of All-Purposes Words	I use general-meaning words (e.g. *thing, do, make*, etc.) when I lack the specific word. (e.g. *I will not go until you repair my... my "thing"*).	Developed
10. Use of Similar-Sounding Words	E.1. I unintentionally misuse words because they sound similar to the word I want to say (e.g., "*I want to reverse this book*", instead of "reserve"). NE 2. I mispronounce words but they sound more or less like the word I want to say (e.g *extenture* instead of "extinguisher").	Developed Developed
11. Self-Repair	**Original:** I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake **Modification**: Adding the illustrative example: (e.g., *he go....he went to class yesterday).*	Nakatani's OCSI (2006)
12. Self-Rephrasing	To make myself understood better, I repeat the meaning of my statements by using other words. (e.g., *we must improve our English... make it much better).*	Developed

B. Interactional Strategies		
1. Appeal for Help	**Original:** I ask other people to help when I cannot communicate well. **Modified to:** I ask other people to help when I lack the appropriate expression (e.g. *the thing we use to clean the floor. What is the name?*)	Nakatani's OCSI (2006)
2. Asking for Clarification	**Original:** I make a clarification request when I am not sure what the speaker has said. **Modified to:** When I am not sure what the speaker has said, I ask him for clarification, using questions like *What do you mean?, You saw what?*	Nakatani's OCSI (2006)
3. Asking for Confirmation	To make sure that what I have heard/understood from the speaker is correct, I ask him for confirmation (e.g., *You said this is your second semester*?).	Developed
4. Asking for Repetition	**Original:** I ask for repetition when I can't understand what the speaker has said. **Modified to:** When I cannot understand what the speaker has said, I ask him for repetition, using words like *Pardon? What? Again please?* etc.	Nakatani's OCSI (2006)
5. Comprehension Check	**Original:** I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say. **Modified to:** to check that the listener understands/ is following what I am saying, I ask him questions like " You got me?", "Understand?", etc.	Nakatani's OCSI (2006)

To summarize, the OCS measure in the instrument of the present research consisted of 21 items. 12 items were newly developed by the researcher of the current study, whereas nine items were taken from Nakatani's (2006) OCSI. Eight of Nakatani's OCSI nine items were modified, while only one item from was adopted without any modification.

3.7.3 Step Three: Piloting the Survey

As shown above, the first draft of the survey had gone through many steps of evaluation and revisions from lecturers, translators as well as participants similar to the target group in order to clear any ambiguity and rectify any problems likely to arise. Following that, it was a crucial step to conduct a pilot test for the present study using data collected from a group of participants similar to the target group. The pilot test for the present study had some objectives as follows:

a) Since one construct included in the instrument of the present study contained 12 items that had been specifically developed to measure the OCSs included in the taxonomy selected for the study, it was a crucial step to conduct a pilot study to check the reliability of the items developed.
b) In addition, the pilot study was needed to test the reliability of study's instrument as a whole.
c) To refine the survey before being distributed for collecting data of the main the study, to rephrase the ambiguous questions, and to decide the time needed for responding to the survey.
d) It also aimed to get a practical insight into the situations of the main study by enabling the researcher to determine the potential problems that may arise from the procedures of collecting data in the main study, and thus avoid and reduce the difficulties in the main study by making the necessary adjustments to the procedures as well as the instrument if needed. The next section presents the steps taken to conduct the pilot.

3.7.3.1 Preparing the Survey Questionnaire for Piloting

Dornyei and Taguchi (2010) affirm that the design of the survey layout is considered as an important aspect of the instrument development, because the main link between the researcher and the respondent is the hard copy of the survey. Thus, its format has a special importance and impact on the respondents. Therefore, the survey of the present study was prepared with all the necessary information for gaining the attention of the respondents about the purpose of the study, promising confidentiality, appreciating the respondents' help, along with general instructions about answering the questions. The survey was printed in an attractive and professional design that was in the booklet format with appropriate density and a good quality of colorful paper (light purple) to make as good impression as possible on the respondents. As many as 350 questionnaires were printed and were ready to be distributed to the Arab students as explained below (see Appendix C for the English version of the questionnaire, and Appendix D for the Arabic version).

3.7.3.2 The Pilot Study

Hundreds of Arab students are enrolled at University Utara Malaysia (UUM) in Master and PhD programmes. According to the record provided by the Graduate Studies Unit at the Academic Affairs Department in UUM, around 563 Arab students were enrolled for their Master and PhD programmes for the September 2013 session (see the Appendix E). It is well known that Arabs share various similarities because they have similar religious, cultural and educational backgrounds. Thus, the Arab students at UUM were considered to be a suitable group for piloting the survey of the present study because they seemed similar to the target population, i.e., Yemeni students.

350 questionnaires were distributed to the Arab students at UUM, attempting to reach the typical sample size at this stage which should be around 100 (± 20) as this number would allow to do some meaningful item analysis (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010). The researcher distributed the survey to her postgraduate neighbours in the hostel. The university library was also another main place to distribute the survey as the majority of the Arab students prefer to study there. Going to classes and postgraduate study rooms was also another strategy used by the researcher to distribute the survey. The researcher also sought the help of some of her postgraduate friends to distribute the survey at the hostel areas of Arab students. The period of the distributing, following up, and collecting the questionnaire took around one month.

During the distribution process, the researcher debriefed a few number of the respondents. They were asked to give their comments of the copy they had in terms of the clarity of both the purpose of the survey as well as the items included, and the like. Almost all the opinions received reflected positive reactions and showed an adequate satisfaction with the clarity of the items and content on the part of the participants. Respondents took around 15 to 20 minutes, which is considered within the preferable length of time for such surveys (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010).

Of the 350 questionnaires distributed, only 131 were returned, achieving a response rate of 37.4 %. Out of the total copies retrieved, nine copies were found invalid for analysis due to skipping some sections and items in the survey. Accordingly, only 122 were valid for further analysis. Thus, the pilot study involved 122 Arab postgraduates, 26 of whom were female students, whereas 96 were males. In terms of their academic study, 62 were PhD students while 60 were Masters students. A

demographic profile of the respondents is presented in Table 3.5 below.

Table 3.5

Profile of the Respondents Involved in the Pilot Study (n=122)

Gender	**Frequency**	**%**
Females	26	21.3
Males	96	78.7
Study Level		
Masters	60	49.2
PhD	62	50.8
Age Group		
Less than 25 to 30	51	41.8
More than 30 to 35	49	40.2
More than 35 to 40	18	14.8
More than 40 to 45	4	3.3
Duration of Stay in Malysia		
1 Month – 1 Year	51	41.8
More than 1 Year – 2 Years	41	33.6
More than 2 Years – 3 Years	15	12.3
More than 3 Years – 4 Years	15	12.3
Nationalities		
Libyan	20	16.4
Iraqi	50	41.0
Jordanian	30	24.6
Syrian	2	1.6
Egyptian	2	1.6
Saudis	2	1.6
Alegerian	9	7.4
Palestinian	5	4.1
Lebanese	2	1.6
Major		
Applied Linguitics	11	9.0
Information Technology	51	41.8
Business Management	34	27.86
Accounting	13	10.65
Banking and Finance	8	6.55
Law	5	4.09

3.7.3.3 Preparing Data for Analysis for the Pilot Study

Based on the collected data in the pilot study, the reliability of the instrument was conducted. SPSS (Statistical Product and Service Solutions) 18.0 was used to analyze the data obtained from the pilot study.

As suggested by Dornyei (2007) and Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), preparing the data for analysis was carried out through employing a number of basic procedures such as data screening and cleaning for handling missing values, and running a reliability analysis by using Cronbach's alpha coefficient method. The sub-sections below explain the details of the data analysis.

3.7.3.4 Data Screening and Cleaning for Missing Values for the Pilot Study

A frequent test was conducted for every item to screen and clean the data from any missing values or typing errors. The test showed that there were no systematic missing values for all the items constituting the study survey. This meant that the data was now ready for running the reliability test using Cronbach's alpha coefficient method.

3.7.3.5 Measuring the Reliability of the Measure for the Pilot Study

Reliability refers to the assessment of the level of internal consistency among multiple measurements of a construct (Hair et al., 2010, Pallant, 2005). The reliability of an instrument also implies that the measure is supposed to produce similar results if used repetitively. Therefore, to check the consistency of the items employed to measure the constructs of the instrument used in this research, a reliability analysis

was conducted by using Cronbach's alpha coefficient method. Usually used to estimate the internal consistency reliability of a scale, Cronbach's alpha is a coefficient (ranging from 0 to 1) indicates the extent to which the items are measuring a single construct; the closer this coefficient is to 1, the more consistently the items are measuring the same thing (p. 32, Wagner, 2010). A high Cronbach's alpha coefficient indicates that the items of the construct show a high consistency and share high tendency to measure the meant construct. Concerning Cronbach's alpha lower accepted limit, Hair et al. (2010) remind that values of .60 to .70 are deemed the lower limit of acceptable reliability (p. 92). The reliability analysis was run for each measure separately. Table 3.6 below shows the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all the constructs of the instrument of the present research.

Table 3.6

Reliability Analysis of the Instrument Used in the Pilot Study

Variables	**No. of Items**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
OCS 12 Items Developed	12	0.826
OCS Items Adapted from Nakatani's (2006) OCSI	9	0.796
OCS Measure as a Whole	21	0.884
Language Motivation	13	0.884
Language Anxiety	24	0.963

As shown above in Table 3.6, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all the measures of the instrument of the present research exceeded the acceptable level of values of .60 to .70 for internal consistency recommended by Hair et al. (2010). Importantly, the internal consistency of the 12 items developed in the present study is 0.826, which highly exceeded the lower level of acceptable reliability of 0.60. This implied that the items developed were highly reliable and suitable to go for data collection for the

main study. The anxiety measure had the highest Cronbach's alpha coefficient at 0.0963, whereas the motivation measure was 0.884. Generally, all the items included in the instrument of the present study showed a good level of internal consistency when measuring their respective intended measures.

3.7.3.6 Construct Validity of the Instrument Used in the Pilot Study

Construct validity refers to "the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical latent construct those items designed to measure" (Hair et al., 2010, p.708). Factor analysis can be used to determine whether the instrument used has construct validity. It is an interdependence technique whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables (Hair et al, 2010). That is, it helps to determine how many latent variables underlie a set of items (DeVellis, 2012). However, Dornyei (2007), Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), and Phakiti (2010) argue that researchers can use another way to determine which items belong together. Dornyei and Taguchi (2010) state that based on the theoretical consideration guiding the construction of the questionnaire, clusters of items that are hypothesized to be clustered together can be formed and then an internal consistency check is conducted to determine whether the assumptions made are borne out in practice (p.91).

Following Dornyei (2007), Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), and Phakiti (2010), this study ran an internal consistency analysis of the items that are identified to be grouped together based on the theoretical consideration guiding the present study. As far as the OCS variable is concerned, the constructs were determined based on the OCS theoretical taxonomies reviewed in the OCS literature. Accordingly, three

constructs underlie the 21 items constituting the OCS measure in the present study. Similarly, the items dealing with the motivation variable were formed into three constructs based on Gardner's AMTB (version 2004). Table 3.7 below presents the results of the reliability analysis of the pilot study for the measures of OCSs and motivation.

Table 3.7

Reliability Analysis of the Underlying Constructs Of the OCSs and Language Motivation Measures in the Pilot Study

Underlying Constructs	**No. of Items**	**Cronbach's Alpha**	**Item Recommended for Deletion**	**Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted**
OCSs				
Avoidance Strategies	3	0.676	13	0.688
Psycholinguistic Strategies	13	0.843	-	-
Interactional Strategies	5	0.746	-	-
Motivation				
Motivational Intensity	3	0.625	2	0.626
Desire to Speak English	5	0.806	-	-
Attitudes towards Speaking E.	5	0.837	-	-

As shown in Table 3.7, the constructs *psycholinguistic strategies* and *interactional strategies* under the OCS variable, and the *constructs desire to speak English* and *attitudes towards speaking English* under the motivation variable showed a good level of internal consistency, exceeding the lower limit of acceptable reliability, i.e., .60. As far as the construct *avoidance strategies* under the OCS variable and *motivational intensity* under the motivation variable, some points need to be highlighted:

a) Although the items' coefficient alpha is lower than 0.7, they are still acceptable by according to Hair et al. (2010). In addition, Dornyei (2007) also explains that the internal consistency reliability of a scale does not only depend on the internal consistency of the items but also on the number of the items making up a scale. Hence, lower Cronbach's alpha coefficients are expected for a short scale of 3-4. Therefore, Dornyei (2007) concurs with Hair et al.'s (2010) recommendations of .60 as the lower acceptable level.

b) A similar level of internal consistency reliability (between .61 to .64) was obtained by Dornyei and Taguchi (2010) for some of the 3-4 item constructs forming their motivation questionnaire during the piloting stage and the main study, something which supports the finding of the pilot study.

c) Although the SPSS analysis suggested deleting some items would have increased the reliability, the increase suggested by SPSS could have hardly made any difference as shown in Table 3.6 above. In addition, deleting those items would have caused a theoretical gap in the content of the scale. As a result, no item was deleted.

Regarding the underlying constructs in Horwitz's et al (1986) FLCAS, no separate constructs are clearly formed to represent the three areas (i.e., communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety) pointed out to in Horwitz's et al (1986). Based on a personal communication between the researcher of the present study and E. K. Horwitz (see Sub-section 3.6.2.1), Horwitz suggested running a factor analysis. Thus, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was run to identify the latent structure (constructs) of the anxiety variable as explained later in Sub-section 3.10.7

3.8 Data Collection Procedures

This section sheds light on the procedures taken to collect data for the main study that adopted a survey questionnaire. Wagner (2010) emphasizes that questionnaires do not have to be administered in person, as the researcher has the choice of using the internet to administer his/her survey via the emails or web-based surveys. According to Dornyei and Taguchi (2010):

> *"... not many online surveys have been conducted. Nevertheless, surveys of this type are bound to become more prominent in the near future, as online administration can overcome several problems associated with the traditional administration methods and can also offer some tempting benefits" (p.69).*

Nearly all the Yemeni postgraduates studying abroad (including Malaysia) benefit from online websites (such Yahoo Groups) and social network services (such as Facebook and Whatsapp) in communicating, sharing knowledge and experience, raising issues to discuss, delivering announces, making suggestions, and others. As a result, a large number of the students have recently benefitted from such online services to distribute their Master and PhD questionnaires. As a matter of fact, using the internet service in distributing surveys has proved a great success due to several reasons. The next sub-section highlights the advantages of using web-based surveys.

3.9 Advantages of Using Web-Based Surveys

Many researchers argue that using web-based surveys has several advantages. Firstly, Wagner (2010) affirms that the major advantage of the web-based survey is that "the data entry can be done automatically online, and the results are immediately available for the researcher". (p. 31). Secondly, Dornyei (2007) explains that a web-based

survey saves time and efforts not only in terms of distributing it, but also in terms of collecting it.

Thirdly, Dornyei and Taguchi (2010) highlight the fact that online survey can get easy access to populations who would otherwise be difficult to reach such as those respondents may be available at a considerable geographical distance due to many reasons such as going home for holiday or data collection. Thus, online surveys can reach the largest possible number as nearly all the students are using such online surveys.

Fourthly, a web-based survey is truly anonymous, and thus it enhances the level of honesty and ensures privacy to the respondents especially if the survey contains some sensitive items (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010; Dornyei, 2007). This is because submitting online survey does not display the email address of or any information related to the respondents.

Fifthly, web-based surveys are usually sent to the personal email addresses of the respondents that can only be reached by the respondents themselves through the passwords of their emails or accounts. Thus, it is highly likely that no responses would be done by 'proxies'.

Sixthly, one of the most important advantages of using web-based surveys lies in the fact that no missing data can be found in online surveys. This is because the online questionnaire is structured in a way that the respondent will not be able to submit the survey if it has any missing data.

Seventhly, Wagner (2010) emphasizes that online surveys allow participants to respond to the questionnaire when the time is convenient to them as it can be retrieved by the respondents online and respond to when the time is suitable for them. This also guarantees to a large extent the survey from being lost as it will be saved in the respondents' laptop or personal computer.

Eighthly, it allows for following-up process with the participants who do not respond and urging them to help complete and send the survey. Finally, it also saves the efforts and problems emerging during collecting the questionnaires, such us the difficulty to find some respondents who received the copies and suddenly disappear.

In a nutshell, there are many advantages of using an online survey. However, some limitations could emerge, such as the absence of an interviewer who can clarify any ambiguous item to the respondents. In addition, possible cooperation problems could be experienced due to the fact that internet users today are 'rained' by different emails so that respondents can easily ignore the survey.

Nevertheless, it is possible to overcome those limitations by taking some simple but important steps. For example, making the items and instructions very clear and comprehensible to the common reader can compensate the absence of an interviewer and enhance the response process. Furthermore, in order to increase the response rate and save the survey from being ignored by the respondents, online surveys should have an interesting title and introductory paragraph that can attract the respondents' attention and make them open and read the email. Additionally, laying emphasis on

the critical importance of the survey for the researcher could create some sympathy on the part of the respondents which could result in responding to the survey. The current study took into account these limitations and applied all the possible precautions in order to avoid the influence of those disadvantages on the web-based survey used. The next sub-section highlights the processes of preparing the web-based questionnaire for the present study.

3.9.1 Preparing the Web-Based Questionnaire for the Present Study

First, it is important to mention here that the original version of the questionnaire was in English. As mentioned previously, the current study chose to translate the survey into Arabic to ensure the highest level of clarity and understating of the items involved. Using Google Drive, the survey was created and then was ready to be accessed in the following website link:

https://docs.google.com/forms/d/1bw55kTKZBbHaUBSri8RZwL2fYOVA84NSCv9ANngu4_I/viewform

Upon clicking the above website link, the respondents find the survey with the introduction and all the guidelines in a pink background (see Appendix F). Designing the web-based survey with a colorful background was one of the strategies applied by the present research to attract the respondents' attention and increase the quality of the survey. The respondents' role was to click on the answer they feel it reflects their own opinion. A first trial was achieved to make sure that the survey items appeared clearly on the screens of laptops and smart phones. The researcher sent the above website link to her own email as well as to two of her friends and checked with them

the layout of the surveys in their own laptops. The three trials went well as the responses were submitted smoothly and successfully. In addition, the above website link also underwent another examination through three different smart phones to make sure that those respondents who might receive the link in their smart phones would have a smooth process while responding to the survey. The trial results also showed that the survey was satisfactorily organized and were ready to be distributed. Accordingly, the survey was sent to different destinations such as Facebook groups as well as other email groups (e.g. yahoo groups) of the Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia.

3.9.2 Follow-up Procedures

Dornyei and Taguchi (2010) highlight the difficulty faced by researchers to get 'adult' respondents to spend enough time and effort completing the surveys, hence the need for follow-up procedures to motivate the participants to give their answer. Accordingly, after posting the website link of the survey for the first time, two further reminders were sent to the relevant groups with an interval of ten days between the former and next reminder, motivating them to respond to the survey. One of the procedures applied by the researcher to motivate the respondents was to share with them the difficulties she was facing in terms of getting insufficient number of the surveys returned and how such a problem could negatively affect her research. Being postgraduates who understood the requirements of academic research and who might have been experienced such difficulties, the respondents positively reacted to this sharing as it was noticed that the survey return rate increased after such sharing.

Part of the follow-up procedures that the researcher employed included telephone calls to the groups' mediators as well as to many other students to seek their help to urge their friends and the members of their groups to respond to the survey. These strategies resulted in a satisfactory response rate as explained later in Chapter Four.

3.10 Data Coding and Screening and Preliminary Analysis for the Main Study

As mentioned previously, the respondents had to access to the website of the present study's online survey and then click on the answer they believed it reflected their experiences and opinions. Once the respondents submitted the online survey, the researcher received the responses online in the form of an Excel sheet (See Appendix G). All the responses provided by the participants were received in the form of numerical scores ranging from 1 to 5 based on the survey's five point Likert scale. However, there were two questions in the demographic data section (i.e., University, and Faculty), where respondents were requested to fill in the blanks with their answers. As a result, the researcher had to code these answers into numerical scores after copying all the data obtained and pasting it in a Microsoft Office Excel Worksheet.

Before analyzing the data, it is important to prepare this data for analysis through performing some statistical procedures such as handling the missing data, testing the normality of the data, and assessing the outliers. The next sub-sections illustrate the procedures taken for preparing the data obtained.

3.10.1 Missing Data Analysis for the Main Study

Several studies emphasize that missing data is an issue of a major concern to many researchers because it has the capability to negatively affect the data analysis of any empirical research (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001). As highlighted previously, no missing values can be found in web-based surveys due to the fact that online surveys are usually structured in such a way that prevents the respondent from submitting the survey if it has any missing data. As far as the web-based survey of the present study is concerned, this argument can be true only for two types of data included in the survey: the Likert scale and five multiple choice questions included the demographic section consisting of seven questions. These two types of the data did not have any missing value because the respondents had no choice but to choose one answer of those provided in the survey.

Regarding the two remaining questions in the demographic data section (i.e., University, and Faculty), the respondents were requested to fill in the blanks with their answers. During the coding process, however, it was found that one of the respondents wrote *home* as his university. At the beginning the researcher thought that *home* might be an abbreviation of a university in Malaysia. Upon checking online about this abbreviation, particularly in the website of the Ministry of Higher Education of Malaysia (www.mohe.gov.my/educationmsia/search.php#institution), it was found that no university is abbreviated *home*. As affirmed by Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), such information should be "eradicated" in order not to bias the results.

Data about universities and faculties of the respondent were coded into a numerical score. After coding the data, a frequent test was conducted for every variable in the demographic data section to screen and clean the data from any missing values or typing errors. The test showed that there were no further systematic missing values for all the variables constituting the demographic section.

3.10.2 Normality Testing

Normality is a terms used to describe a symmetrical, bell shaped curve (representing the distribution of the data) which has the greatest frequency of scores in the middle, with smaller frequencies towards the extremes (Dornyei 2007; & Pallant, 2005). Normality can be assessed by checking the values of skewness and kurtosis of the data (Hair at al, 2010; & Pallant, 2005). The skewness value indicates the symmetry of the distribution, whereas kurtosis refers to the peakness of the distribution (Pallant, 2005).

There are some guidelines about how much non-normal distribution can be problematic. Some researchers suggest that data is distributed normally if the skewness values are $< \pm 3.0$ and kurtosis is $< \pm 8.0$ (Kline, 2011). A stricter view says that the range should not fall outside the range -1 to +1 (Hair et al, 2010).

In the present study, all variables were tested using the skewness and kurtosis level for normality. Results showed that the skewness and kurtosis values for all of the variables of this study fell within the range of -1 to +1 recommended by Hair et al (2010) as they ranged between -.892 and .630 for skewness, and from -.894 to .276 for kurtosis. This indicated that the data of the present study appread to have a

normal distribution. Table 3.8 below shows the results of the normality testing.

3.10.3 Outliers Assessment

Outliers are those cases which are inconsistent with the rest of the dataset because they are way out of the usual range of the remaining being unusually high or low (Dornyei, 2007). Those extreme cases can seriously distort the statistical results (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2005). Therefore, they need to be identified and then treated. *Mahalanobis distance measure* is one of the statistical techniques used to detect outliers. This technique measures the distance of each observation from the mean center of all observations in multidimensional space (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 3.8

Descriptive Statistics of Normality Testing (n=171)

Variables	**Mean**	**SD**	**Skewness**		**Kurtosis**	
			Statistics	**S.E**	**Statistics**	**S.E**
OCSs						
Avoidance Strategies	9.53	2.72	-.445	.186	-.316	.369
Psycholinguistic Strategies	39.75	9.28	-.076	.186	-.159	.369
Interactional Strategies	17.35	3.86	-.342	.186	0.001	.369
Language Motivation						
Motivational Intensity	12.39	2.02	-.514	.186	-.160	.369
Desire to Speak English	21.13	3.12	-.642	.186	**.276**	.369
Attitudes towards Speaking E.	21.56	3.23	**-.892**	.186	.230	.369
Language Anxiety						
Language Anxiety	51.89	18.69	.097	.186	**-.894**	.369
English Use Anxiety	10.70	4.56	**.630**	.186	-.426	.369

To detect the outlier observations in the present study, the Mahalanobis distance measure was performed and then its values were compared to the critical values in Chi-square distribution table (see Appendix H). Given that 58 items were used in the survey questionnaire of the present study, then 58 represented the degree of freedom (*df*) in the Chi-square table with $p = 0.001$. Based on *df* in the Chi-square table, the criterion applied to determine a case as an outlier was 97.03. This means that any case with a Mahalanobis distance greater than 97.03 was considered an outlier.

Comparing values of Mahalanobis of this study to the Chi-Square distribution table, results indicated the existence of outlier observations. Only four observations with Mahalanobis distances ranging between 97.30 and 106.00 were detected. These four cases formed only about 2% of the total cases, which is considered a very small ration. In addition, they were close to the criterion mentioned above, i.e., 97.03, particularly the case with 97.30 Mahalanobis distance. According to Coakes and Steed (2003), Pallant (2005), and Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), since it is not unusual for a few outliers to appear, the outlier observations should be deleted from the data if their number is big and expected to affect the reliability of the results obtained. Given the size of the data file, the detected outliers in this study were retained for further analysis.

3.10.4 Non-Response Bias Test

Response bias is another issue of concern to any study due to its likelihood to seriously affect the statistical results (Linder, Murphy & Briers, 2001). According to Ellis, Endo and Armer (1970), non-response bias occurs when there is "a systematic discrepancy between respondents and non-respondents on variables relevant to the inquiry" (p.

103), which might affect the results of the study.

For any study depending on a voluntary participation like the present study, there is always a possibility that respondents differ from non-respondents in some significant manner that may affect the results of the study. In the current study, late respondents could be used in place of non-respondents, essentially because they probably wouldn't have responded if they had not been frequently followed up, hence the need to make sure that the study is response-bias free. The non-response bias test's function is to detect whether the respondents' answers were given based on their ideas and beliefs or that they were influenced by any cognitive bias caused by the followed-up approach researchers usually employ to get their respondents answer the surveys.

In order to assess the non-response bias, the independent-samples *t* test was conducted to compare the responses of the early and late respondents. As mentioned previously, two reminders were sent to the respondents with an interval of ten days between the first and second reminder. The data of this study were obtained in January 2014. Moreover, although the website link of survey had been posted in all the relevant online groups, many participants responded only after the first and second reminders. Following the suggestions of Armstrong and Overton (1977), if differences between late and early respondents were found to be significant, they may indicate the underlying differences between respondents and non-respondents.

This study carried out the *t* test to examine the differences between the group of respondents that responded after posting the website link of the survey and the group

of respondents that responded after the final reminder. The test took into account all the constructs included in the study. Results of the *t* test presented in Table 3.9 below showed that there were no significant differences between the late and early respondents across all the constructs of the present except for interactional strategies and motivational intensity.

Since there were only two constructs in the present study having differences between late and early respondents, non-response bias was not a major concern in this study that would significantly affect the generalizability of the findings of this research. That is because if the response bias had really taken place in this study, significance differences would have been found across all the constructs included in the *t* test, because the late respondents would have responded the same way across all the items of the survey. Accordingly, the differences found in the constructs of interactional strategies and motivational intensity was a matter of differences in ideas and beliefs among the late respondents regarding these two constructs rather than a response bias.

Table 3.9

T-Test Results for Non-Response Bias

Variable	**T-Value**	**Significance (p < .05)**
Avoidance Strategies	1.138	.258
Psycholinguistics Strategies	1.761	.081
Interactional Strategies	2.276	.025*
Motivational Intensity	-2.628	.010*
Desire to Speak English	-1.591	.114
Attiudes to Speak English	-1.836	.069
Language Anxiety	.066	.947
English Use Anxiety	.301	.764

3.10.5 Measuring the Reliability of the Instrument Used in the Main Study

As previously mentioned, reliability refers to the assessment of the level of internal consistency among multiple measurements of a construct (Hair et al., 2010). The reliability of an instrument also implies that the measure is supposed to produce similar results if used repetitively. Therefore, to check the consistency of items employed to measure the constructs of the instrument used in this research, a reliability analysis was conducted by using Cronbach's alpha coefficient method. Concerning Cronbach's alpha lower accepted limit, Hair et al. (2010) remind that values of .60 to .70 are deemed the lower limit of acceptable reliability (p. 92).

The reliability analysis was performed for each construct separately. Table 3.10 below shows that the Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all the constructs of the instrument of the present research exceeded the acceptable level of internal consistency. Importantly, the internal consistency of the 12 items developed in the present study is 0.847, which highly exceeds the lower level of acceptable reliability of 0.70. This implies that the items developed are highly reliable and are ready to go for data analysis. It can also be noticed that there were no items deleted to improve the internal consistency of the constructs. Generally, all the items included in the instrument of the present study showed a good level of internal consistency when measuring their respective intended measures.

Table 3.10

Reliability Analysis of the Main Study's Instrument

Variables	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
OCS Measure		
Measure as a Whole	21	0.907
OCS 12 Items Developed	12	0.847
OCS Items in OCSI	9	0.815
Language Motivation		
Measure as a Whole	13	0.909
Motivational Intensity	3	0.718
Desire to Speak English	5	0.747
Attitudes towards Speaking English	5	0.860
Language Anxiety		
Language Anxiety	19	0.964
English Use Anxiety	5	0.897

3.10.6 Construct Validity of the instrument Used in the Main Study

Similar to the procedures taken to assess the construct validity of the instrument used in the pilot study (see Sub-section 3.7.3.6), the construct validity of the instrument adopted by the main study was also checked based on the theoretical consideration guiding the construction of the questionnaire, as suggested by Dornyei (2007), Dornyei and Taguchi (2010), and Phakiti (2010). Table 3.11 below presents the results of the reliability analysis of the instrument of the current study for the measures of OCSs and motivation. As shown in the table below, all the constructs constituting the measures of OCSs and motivation showed a good level of internal consistency, exceeding the lower limit of acceptable reliability, i.e., .60. The following sub-section, however, discusses the case of the third measure, i.e., language anxiety.

Table 3.11

Reliability Analysis of the Underlying Constructs Of the OCSs and Language Motivation Measures

Underlying constructs	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
OCSs		
Avoidance Strategies	3	0.702
Psycholinguistic Strategies	13	0.865
Interactional Strategies	5	0.782
Language Motivation		
Motivational Intensity	3	0.718
Desire to Speak English	5	0.747
Attitudes towards Speaking English	5	0.860

3.10.7 Factor Analysis for the Language Anxiety Variable

As far as Horwitz et al.'s (1986) FLCAS is concerned, no clear determination of any constructs underlying items under the items of FLCAS. As a result, the researcher had personal communication with Horwitz via an email to inquiry about this issue (kindly refer to Sub-section 3.6.2). Horwitz suggested conducting an exploratory factor analysis. Following Horwitz's suggestion, (EFA) was run to identify the latent structure (constructs) of the language anxiety variable through the use of the Principle Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax rotation. By using factor analysis, the items explaining the same construct could be identified. All the 19 items including in the language anxiety variable of the present study were subjected to PCA using SPSS version 18.0.

However, before running the PCA, the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis is usually examined through two tests: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The recommended values of KMO are .60 or above (Kaiser, 1970; Kaiser, 1974). The closer will be KMO to 1, the more appropriate factor analysis will be. To further explain, Kaiser (1974) described the KMO measure (based on its closeness to 1) as follows:

≈ 0.90 - Marvelous

≈0.80 - Meritorious

≈0.70 - Middling

≈0.60 - Mediocre

≈0.50 - Miserable

< 0.50 - Unacceptable.

Regarding Bartlett's test of sphericity, its significance value should be .50 or smaller (Pallant, 2005). Table 3.11 summarized the results of factor analysis to the 19 items adapted from Horwitz et al. (1986) and the latent constructs identified.

Table 3.12 below shows that the KMO measure of sampling adequacy is 0.948, which highly exceeded the recommended value of 0.6. In addition, Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant at $p = 0.000$, which indicated that the data was appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 3.12

Factor Analysis of the 19 Items Adapted from Horwitz et al. (1986)

Item Code	New Code	Factor Loadings		
		CA*	FNE**	LSCLA***
AN15	CA1	.775		
AN16	CA2	.746		
AN17	CA3	.743		
AN18	CA4	.667		
AN12	CA5	.663		
AN8	CA6	.619		
AN9	CA7	.583		
AN14	CA8	.581		
AN10	CA9	.519		
AN1	FNE1		.823	
AN3	FNE2		.784	
AN2	FME3		.751	
AN7	FNE4		.648	
AN4	FNE5		.625	
AN13	FNE6		.589	
AN5	LSCLA1			.804
AN11	LSCLA2			.765
AN19	LSCLA3			.737
AN6	LSCLA4			.529
Eigenvalues		11.542	1.022	1.010
VE %		27.788	26.744	16.915
Reliability		0.940	0. 914	.868
KMO	0.948			
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	2776.365			
Significance	0.000			

*CA Communication Apprehension
**FNE Fear of Negative Evaluation
*** LSCLA Lack of Self-Confidence and Listening Anxiety

The factor loadings of the items were examined and compared to the minimum value of 0.450 recommended by Hair et al. (2010) for practically significant item loadings. Table 4.6 shows that the values of the factor loading ranged between .519 and .823,

exceeding the recommended limit of 0.450 of practical significance. The 19 items loaded on three factors with eigenvalues greater than one. These three factors explained about 71 % of the overall variance in the three factors.

Based on the common meaning and content of the items grouped under each factor, the factors are labeled (Hair et al., 2010). *Communication Apprehension* (CA) was named to the first factor, whereas the second factor was labeled as *Fear of Negative Evaluation* (FNE). The third factor, however, was labeled as lack of self-confidence and listening anxiety (LSCLA). As shown in Table 4.6 below, the three constructs showed high internal consistency with 0.94 for CA and 0.914 for FNE, and .868 for LSCLA.

Having ensured that the obtained data was cleaned from any missing value and normally distributed, and there were no threats from outliers cases nor bias response, beside that the data of the main study was valid and reliable, the data at this stage was ready for statistical analyses using SPSS with the purpose of answering the research questions. The findings of the current study are presented in Chapter Four.

3.11 Methods of Statistical Data Analysis

The data of the present study were analyzed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18.0. Three procedures were used to statistically analyze the data. First, the data were screened for missing values, outliers and normality testing, and then descriptive statistics were run to summarize and initially analyze the data obtained. Second, the data were prepared for bivariate and multivariate analysis through testing the assumptions of correlation analysis and multiple

regression. Finally, Pearson correlation, standard multiple regression analysis, an independent-samples t-test, and one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were run to answer the questions of the study. The following sub-sections further explain these procedures.

3.11.1 Descriptive Analysis

To get a conclusive depiction of the data, descriptive statistics such as the frequencies, means, standard deviation and percentage of the OCSs were provided in order to identify the OCSs used most by the respondents of the present study.

3.11.2 Preparing Data for Bivariate and Multivariate Analysis

The present study used a five- point Likert type. Thus, the data obtained was nonmetric ordinal data (Hai et al. 2010; Dornyei, 2007). However, Chi square was not used in the present study as it is utilized for categorical data (also known as nominal data (Pallant, 2005). Preparing data for bivariate and multivariate analysis was a requirement before running any kind of bivariate and multivariate analysis. Usually, the preparation procedures include running the following statistical techniques:

i. Normality testing through skewness, kurtosis. Skewness is a measure of the symmetry of a data distribution (Pallant, 2005). A normal distribution of the data should have a bell or a curve shape. A positive skeweness value indicates that the distribution is skewed to the left, whereas a negative value of skewness shows that the scores grouped to the right. Kurtosis, on the other hand, is a "measure of the peakedness or flatness of a distribution when compared to a normal distribution. A positive value indicates a relatively

peaked distribution, while a negative one indicates relatively flat distribution" (Hair et al., 2010, p. 35).

i. Homoscedasticity and linearity can be checked through the scatterplots. "Homoscedasticity refers to the assumption that dependent variable(s) exhibits equal levels of variance across the range of predicator variable(s)" (Hair et al., 2010, p. 74). Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) affirmed that homoscedasticity is associated with the assumption of normality. That is, when the assumption of normality is met, then the relationship between variables becomes homoscedastic. As far as linearity, Pallant (2005) explains that the relationship between the two variables is linear when the scatterplot of scores show a roughly straight line not a curve.

ii. Independence of residuals is one of the assumptions made by standard multiple regression. It means that the predicated values are not explained by any predication in other than those in the regression equation (Hair et al., 2010). Identifying this assumption can be made by checking the regression's scatterplot. A random pattern indicates an independence of residuals, while a consistent pattern means the residuals are not independent.

3.11.3 Correlation Analysis

Pearson analysis was used to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between the three variables of the present study. In this study the relationships between OCSs used by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and language motivation and anxiety were examined separately. A positive correlation shows that as

one variable increases, the other also increases. A negative correlation, on the other hand, means that as one variable increases, the other decreases. A correlation of 0 means that there is no relationship between the two variables, whereas a perfect correlation of +1 or -1 shows that the value of one variable can be determined by knowing the value of the other variable (Pallant, 2005 & Creswell, 2008)

3.11.4 Standard Multiple Regression

Standard multiple regression is a more sophisticated extension of correlation and is used to explore the predictive ability of a set of independent variables on one continuous dependent measure (Pallant, 2005; & Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). It shows how much variance in a dependent variable is explained by the independent variables as a group or block (Pallant, 2005; & Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). This analysis was conducted in this study to examine the predictive ability of language motivation and anxiety on the use of OCSs.

3.11.5 An Independent-Samples T-Test

An independent-samples t-test is used to compare the mean score on some continuous variable, for two different groups of subjects (Field, 2009). This test was used in the present study to compare the OCSs mean scores for females and males as well as for the Masters and PhD students.

3.11.6 One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

This test is similar to the independent-samples t-test, but it is usually employed when there are more than two groups whose mean scores on a continuous variable is aimed to compare. This technique was performed by the current research to compare the

variance in the mean scores of the respondents' age groups, academic fields, length of stay in Malaysia and self-perceived English oral proficiency on their use of OCSs.

3.12 Summary of Chapter Three

This chapter described the methods and techniques adopted in the present study. It delineated the research design and described the sample size and the instruments used. It also explained the procedures taken to develop the items needed in the OCS measure and reported the results of the pilot study. Moreover, this chapter discussed the data collection procedures, and described the processes of preparing the data obtained from the main study, which included screening the data, performing preliminary analysis to check the missing data, test the normality, and assess the outliers, and examining the reliability of the instrument used. Finally, this chapter shed light on the techniques of data analysis. The next chapter, thus, is devoted to report the results and findings of the research questions obtained by the main study followed by discussions of the possible causes and reasons that led to these findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the findings obtained by the current study. With the purpose of answering the research questions, this chapter presents an identification of the OCSs used most by Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia followed by an analysis of the relationships between the OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety. Additionally, an examination of the differences in the OCS use based on the demographic variables of the respondents is also provided. The results of the data analysis are reported together with a detailed discussion and explanations of the possible causes and reasons that led to the findings obtained by the current research.

4.2 Demographic Distribution of the Respondents

The current study aimed to address the following research questions:

1. What types of oral communication strategies do Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia use most in their English oral communication?
2. To what extent, is there a relationship between language motivation and oral communication use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia?
3. To what extent, is there a relationship between language anxiety and oral communication use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia?
4. Is there any difference in the use of oral communication strategies among Yemeni postgraduates based on their demographic variables (i.e., gender, age,

level of study [i.e., MA or PhD], academic field, length of stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived English oral proficiency)?

Table 4.1 below sheds light on the distribution of respondents according to their gender, age groups, study level, colleges, universities they were enrolled in, length of stay in Malaysia as well as their self-perceived of English proficiency. This table is followed by a further explanation of this demographic distribution.

Table 4.1

Distribution of the Respondents by their Demographic Variables (n=171)

Gender	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Female	38	22.2
Male	133	77.8
Age Group		
Less than 25 to 30	52	30.4
More than 30 to 35	86	50.3
More than 35 to 40	20	11.7
More than 40 to 45	13	7.6
Study Level		
Master	58	33.9
PhD	113	66.1
Length of Stay in Malaysia		
1 month to 1 year	31	18.1
More than 1 year to 2 years	25	14.6
More than 2 years to 3 years	22	12.9
More than 3 years to 4 years	26	15.2
More than 4 years	67	39.2

University	Frequency	Percent
UUM	34	19.9
UM	21	12.3
USM	27	15.8
UTM	22	12.9
IIUM	1	0.6
UPM	29	17.0
UKM	18	10.5
UiTM	16	9.4
UNITEN	3	1.8
Faculty		
IT	47	27.5
Business	70	40.9
Arts and Sciences	22	12.9
Medical sciences and Engineering	32	18.7
Self-Perceived English Oral Proficiency		
Poor	26	15.2
Average	13	7.6
Good	55	32.2
Very good	60	35.1
Excellent	17	9.9

4.2.1 Gender

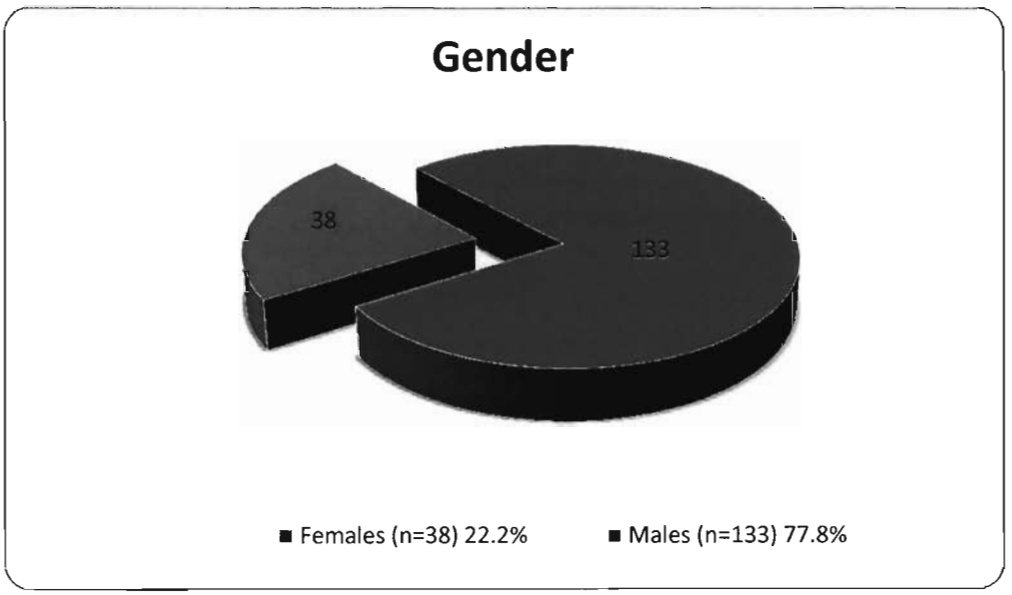


Figure 4.1. Distribution of respondents according to their gender

The demographic data revealed the dominance of male students among the Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. More specifically, the descriptive results exhibited that 77.8% of the respondents were males compared to only 22.2% females as depicted in Figure 5.2 above.

Actually, this distribution is a reflection of the Arab culture that is still characterized by a male dominance, where women are perceived to devote themselves fully to their family in the household. Only few women could manage to overcome the cultural obstacles and go overseas to pursue their postgraduate studies. This accounts for the small number of Yemeni females compared to males not only in the present study but in many other aspects of life.

4.2.2 Age Groups

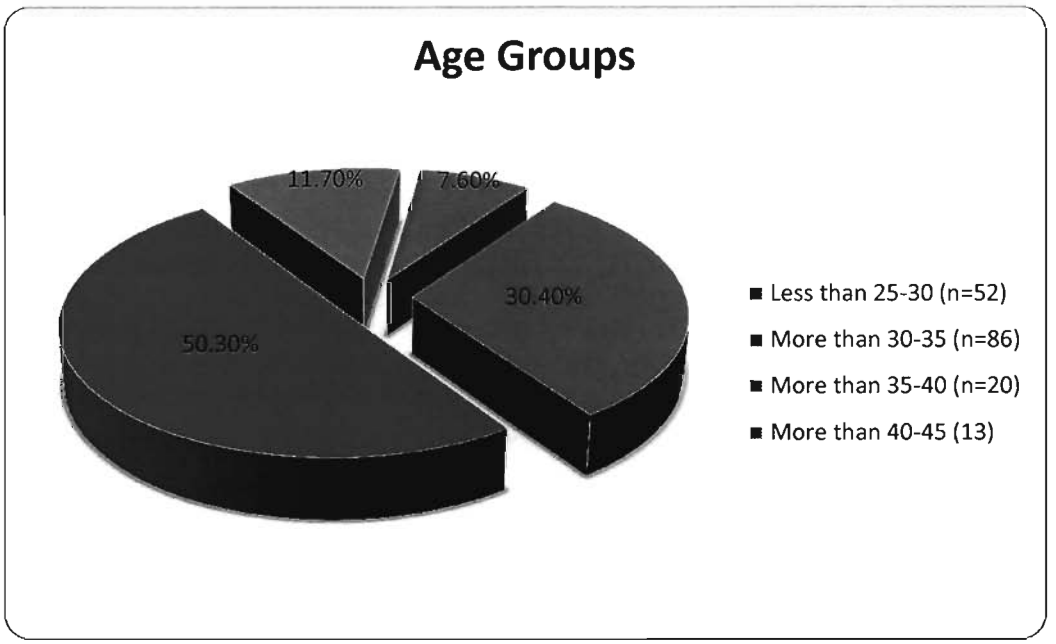


Figure 4.2. Distribution of respondents according to their age groups

Figure 4.2 above illustrates the age groups of the respondents. As clearly shown, the ages of more than 50% of the respondents ranged from more than 30 to 35 years old followed by 30% of the respondents with ages ranging 25 to 30 years old. This is also another reflection of the situation on ground as the vast majority of Yemeni postgraduates are actually members of the academic staff in Yemeni universities as well as government employers who have spent few years after attaining their first university degree as government employees before they pursue their postgraduate studies.

4.2.3 Study Level

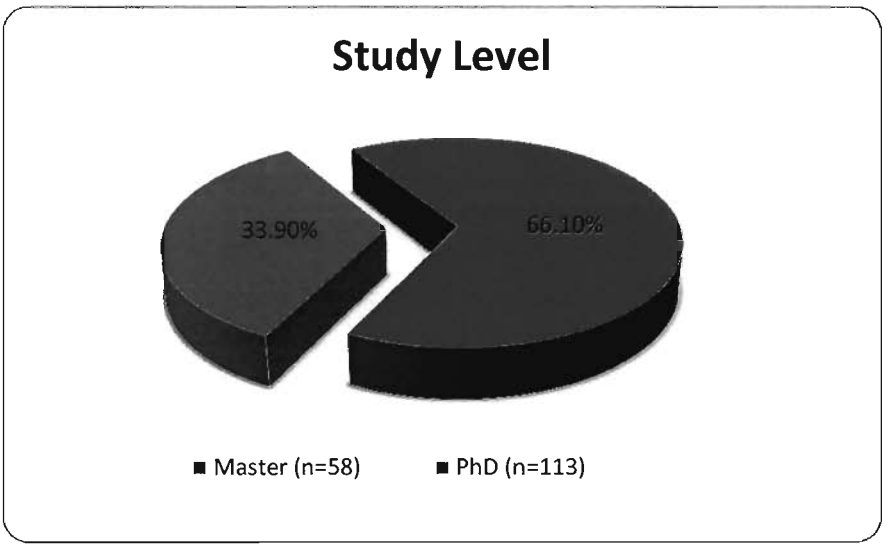


Figure 4.3. Distribution of respondents according to their study level

The graph above shows that the majority of the respondents were PhD students with a percentage of about 66%. Masters students formed only 33% of the respondents.

4.2.4 Academic Fields

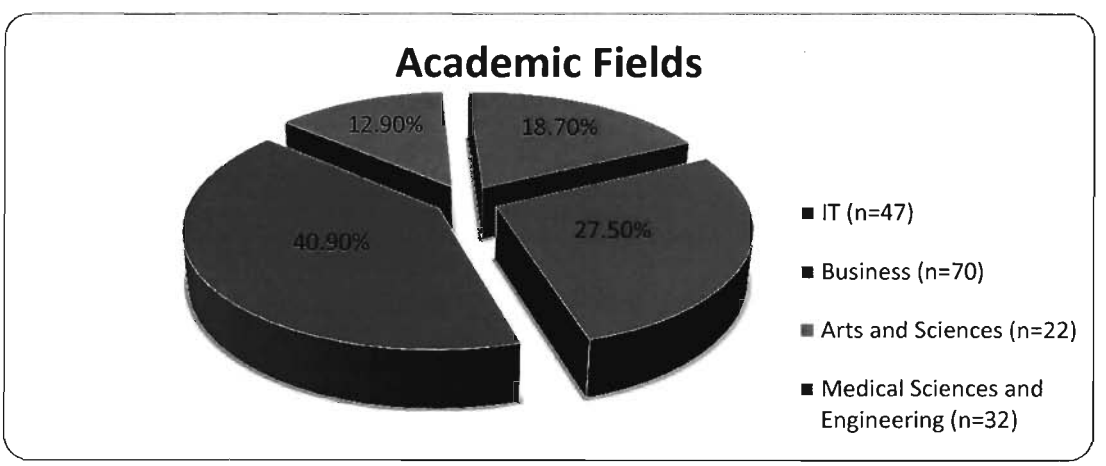


Figure 4.4. Distribution of respondents according to their academic fields

Figure 4.4 indicates that the academic field of Business obtained the highest representation with almost 41% of the academic fields of the respondents followed by

Information Technology (IT) with more than 27%. This is an actual reflection of Yemeni postgraduates' majors in the different faculties of Malaysian universities as the majority of the students enroll in business colleges with their different departments such as human recourses management, marketing, public management, tourism accounting, and the like. Similarly, a large number of Yemeni postgraduates enroll in IT schools with their departments such as information and communication technology, multimedia, and the like. It is important to mention here that fields of medical sciences and field of engineering were grouped into one group for analysis purposes, where both formed almost 19% of the distribution.

4.2.5. Universities

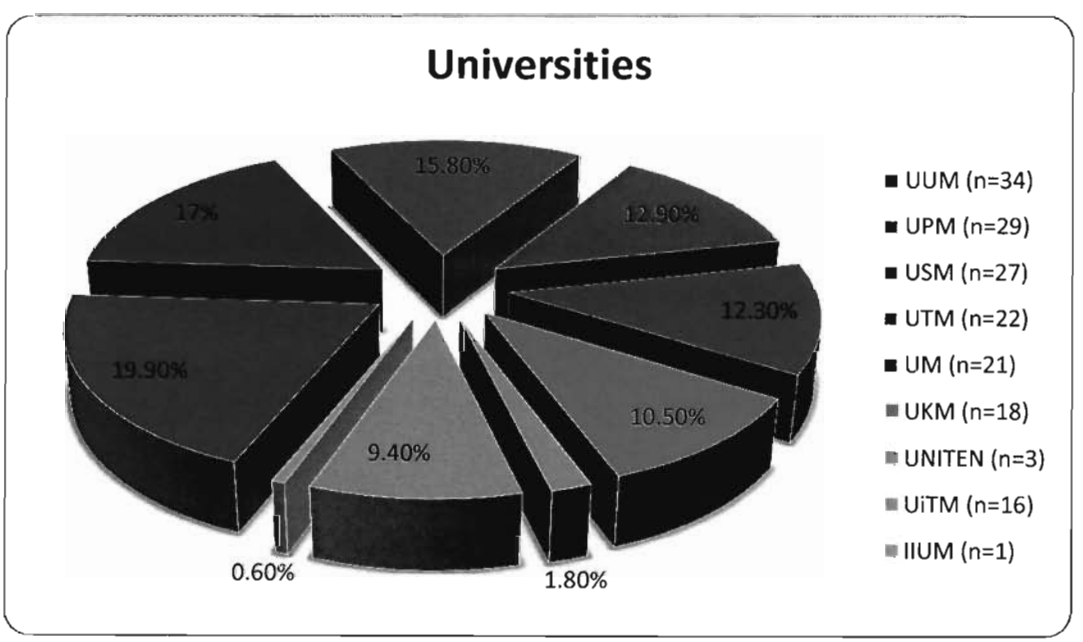


Figure 4.5. Distribution of respondents according to their universities

The above diagram highlights the affiliations of the respondents of the present study. UUM obtained the highest representation with almost 20% of the respondents'

universities. UPM, USM, UTM, UM, and UKM had convergent rates of representation ranging between about 11% to 17%. What was remarkable here is that IIUM was represented in this study with only one student. This was normal due to the fact that the majority of Yemeni students in IIUM are undergraduates.

4.2.6 Length of Stay in Malaysia

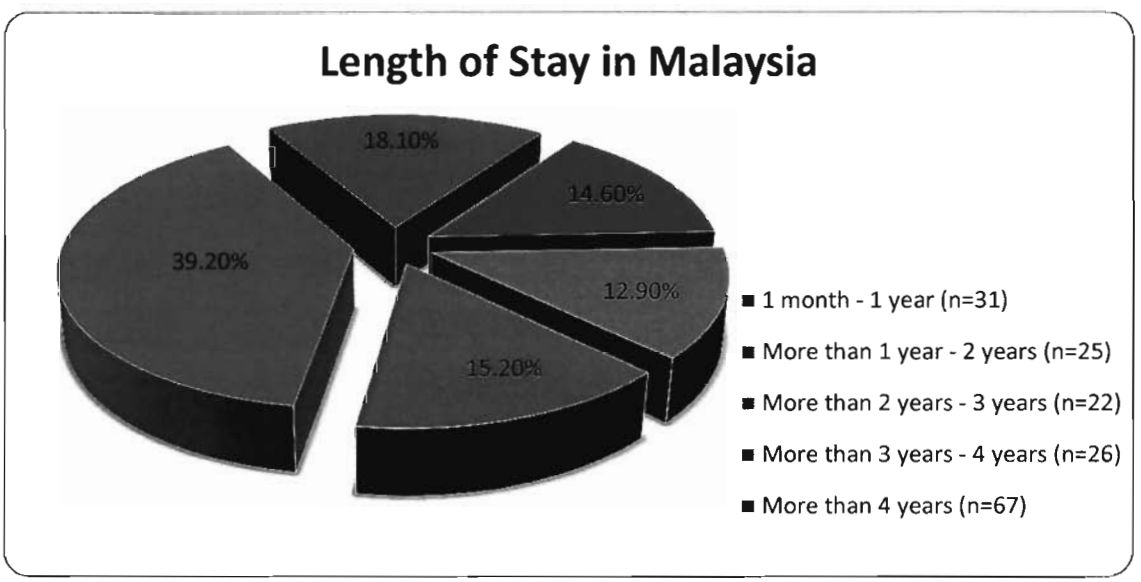


Figure 4.6. Distribution of respondents according to their length of stay in Malaysia

Figure 4.6 highlights the duration of time spent by the respondents of the present study in Malaysia. The figure above shows that around 39% of the students had spent more than four years in Malaysia. Generally, the three remaining groups of length of stay in Malaysia (i.e., from one month to three years) had convergent ratios ranging from 13% to 18%.

4.2.7 Self-Perceived English Oral Proficiency

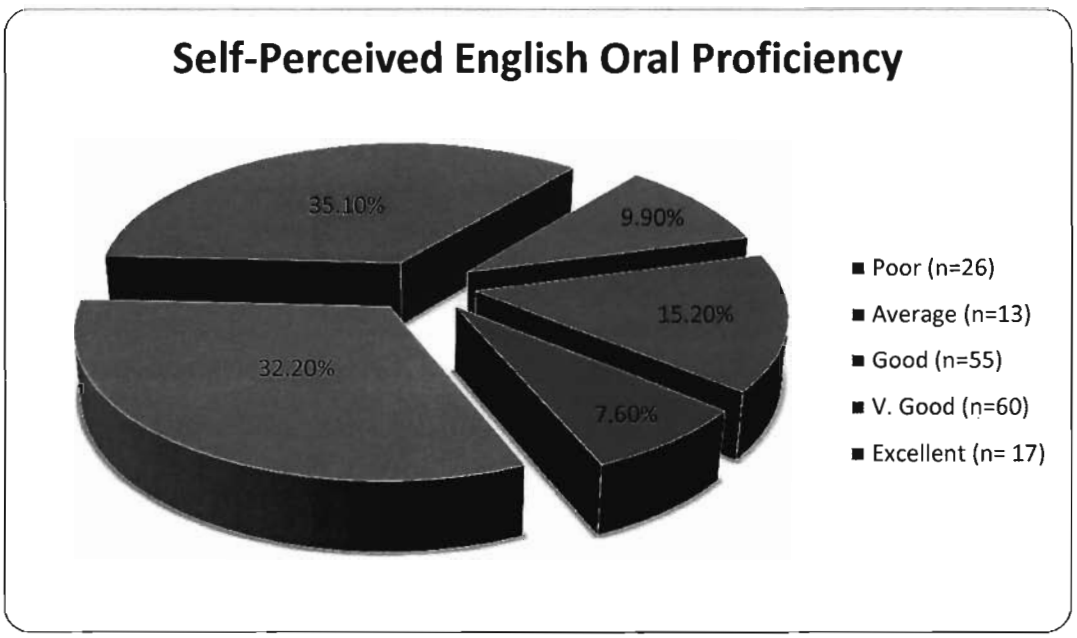


Figure 4.7. Distribution of respondents based on their self-perceived English oral proficiency

Figure 4.7 above shows that the majority of the respondents (67%) rated their English oral proficiency as either good or very good. This can be explained within the context of the length of stay in Malaysia. The postgraduate students who had been living for, say, two or three years in Malaysia might have believed that they had gained a good experience in using English, hence their perception of their English oral proficiency as good and very good. While very few students perceived their English proficiency as excellent, 15% and 7.60% believed their proficiency to be poor and average respectively. Having demonstrated the profile of the respondents of the current study, the next section, thus, moves on to report the finding of the research questions.

4.3 Findings of Research Question One (Types of OCSs)

What types of oral communication strategies do Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia use most in their English oral communication?

The first objective of the present study is to identify the types of oral communication strategies used most by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. To achieve this objective, frequency statistics (frequencies and percentages) with the aid of SPSS were carried out to identify which types of OCSs are most used by the respondents of the present study. Additionally, for further understanding of the actual use of OCSs by the respondents, and to get a complete picture of the scene, a descriptive analysis including mean, standard deviation, maximum and minimum, and mode of the various OCSs were also reported. Table 4.2 shows the statistical frequencies and percentages of the OCSs used by the respondents.

Table 4.2

The Statistical Frequencies and Percentages of the OCSs Used by the Yemeni Postgraduates in Malaysia (n=171)

OCSs	**1 (Never)** F* P**	**2 (Seldom)** F P	**3 (Sometimes)** F P	**4 (Often)** F P	**5 (Always)** F P
I. Avoidance Strategies					
1. Topic avoidance	18 (10.5%)	17 (9.9%)	66 (38.6%)	46 (26.9%)	24 (14.0%)
2. Message abandonment	30 (17.5%)	28 (16.4%)	61 (35.7%)	39 (22.8%)	13 (7.6%)
3. Meaning replacement	10 (5.8%)	26 (15.2%)	46 (26.9%)	59 (34.5%)	30 (17.5%)
II. Achievement Strategies A. Psycholinguistic Strategies	**1 (Never)**	**2 (Seldom)**	**3 (Sometimes)**	**4 (Often)**	**5 (Always)**
1. Approximation	27 (15.8%)	31 (18.1%)	45 (26.3%)	49 (28.7%)	19 (11.1%)
2. Mime	14 (8.2%)	40 (23.4%)	41 (23.4%)	55 (32.2%)	21 (12.3%)
3. Word Coinage	18 (10.5%)	25 (14.6%)	48 (28.1%)	50 (29.2)	30 (17.5%)

4. Circumlocution	5 (2.9%)	23 (13.5%)	40 (23.4%)	64 (37.4%)	39 (22.8%)
5. Code-Switching	68 (39.8%)	48 (28.1%)	30 (17.5%)	21 (12.3%)	4 (2.3%)
6. Literal translation	54 (31.6%)	44 (25.7%)	35 (20.5%)	25 (14.6%)	13 (7.6%)
7. Restructuring	15 (8.8%)	28 (16.4%)	50 (29.2%)	54 (31.6%)	24 (14.0%)
8. Retrieval	27 (15.8%)	32 (18.7%)	59 (34.5%)	37 (21.6%)	16 (9.4%)
9. Use of all-purposes words	14 (8.2%)	39 (22.8%)	41 (24.0%)	55 (32.2%)	22 (12.9%)
10. Use of similar-sounding words (E)	29 (17.0%)	48 (28.1%)	54 (31.6%)	29 (17.0%)	11 (6.4%)
10. Use of similar-sounding words (NE)	27 (15.8%)	31 (18.1%)	52 (30.4%)	44 (25.7%)	17 (9.9%)
11. Self-repair	7 (4.1%)	17 (9.9%)	38 (22.2%)	71 (41.5%)	38 (22.2%)
12. Self-rephrasing	1 (.6%)	27 (15.8%)	59 (34.5%)	56 (32.7%)	28 (16.4%)
B. Interactional Strategies					
1. Appeal for help	8 (4.7%)	50 (29.2%)	48 (28.1%)	41 (24.0%)	24 (14.0%)
2.Asking for clarification	4 (2.3%)	17 (9.9%)	42 (24.6%)	68 (39.8%)	40 (23.4%)
3. Asking for confirmation	9 (5.3%)	27 (15.8%)	51 (29.8%)	63 (36.8%)	21 (12.3%)
4.Asking for repetition	3 (1.8%)	16 (9.4%)	33 (19.3%)	67 (39.2%)	52 (30.4%)
5. Comprehension check	13 (7.6%)	25 (14.6%)	52 (30.4%)	64 (37.4%)	17 (9.9%)

F* = Frequencies
P** = Percentage

Subjects of the present study responded to the OCS scale which attempted to elicit their communicative behaviors towards 21 communication strategies constituting the taxonomy of the present study. All respondents rated their use of each communication strategy based on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1(never) to 5 (always). In order to identify the types of oral communication strategies used most by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia, the OCSs that had the highest frequencies under Likert's scale points 4 (i.e., often) and 5 (i.e., always) were reported.

Asking for repetition (when I cannot understand what the speaker has said, I ask him for repetition, using words like *Pardon? What? Again please?*), as demonstrated in Table 4.2 above, received the highest frequency with 119 respondents (forming 69.60% of the total respondents) reporting that they *always* (52/ 30.4%) */often* (67/ 39.2%) ask their interlocutor for repetition when they do not understand what he/she has said.

Self-repair (I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake) was reported to be the second highest OCS employed by Yemeni postgraduates. This OCS was found to be employed by 109 respondents (63.70%) who stated that they *always* (38/ 22. %) */often* (71/ 41.50%) correct themselves when they notice that they have made a mistake.

Asking for clarification (when I am not sure what the speaker has said, I ask him for clarification, using questions like *what do you mean?, you saw what?*) was one of the OCSs frequently adopted by the respondents to facilitate their communication, as 108 respondents (63.20%) apparently tend to *always* (40/ 23.40%) */often* (68/ 39.80%) ask their interlocutors to clarify what they have said.

Circumlocution (when I lack a specific word, I express it by describing its characteristics/ function) is also used by Yemeni students to cope with their communication difficulties. Respondents tend to highly resort to this OCS as 103 respondents (60.2%) stated that they *always* (39/ 22.80%) */often* (64/ 37.40%) express the term they lack through describing its characteristics or function.

Meaning replacement (when I feel incapable of saying my original idea, I replace it with a simpler expression) was found to resorted to by 89 respondents (52%) who tend to *always* (30/ 17.50%) */often* (59/ 34.5%) replace their original idea that they feel incapable of saying with a simpler expression.

Asking for confirmation (to make sure that what I have heard/understood from the speaker is correct, I ask him for confirmation) was also identified as one of the OCSs employed most by Yemeni postgraduates for the purpose of facilitating a smooth flow of communication. This OCS was reported to be adopted by 84 respondents (49.10%) who stated that they *always* (21/12.3%) */often* (63/ 36.80%) ask their interlocutors to confirm that what they have heard/understood from him/her is correct.

Interestingly, *self-rephrasing* (to make myself understood better, I repeat the meaning of my statements by using other words) had the same total of frequencies like *asking for confirmation*, with a total of 84 respondents (49.10%) reporting that they *always* (28/ 16.4%) */often* (56/ 32.70%) repeat the meaning of their statements by using other words with the purpose of making themselves understood better. Table 4.3 below summarizes the findings obtained from the frequencies of the OCSs used most by the Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia.

Table 4.3

The OCSs Used most by the Yemeni Postgraduates in Malaysia (n=171)

OCSs	4 (Often) F P	5 (always) F P	Total
1.Asking for repetition (ACHIEV-INTERACT)*	67 (39.2%)	52 (30.4%)	119 (69.60%)
2. Self-repair (ACHIEVE-PSY)**	71 (41.5%)	38 (22.2%)	109 (63.70%)
3. Asking for clarification (ACHIEV-INTERACT)	68 (39.8%)	40 (23.4%)	108 (63.20%)
4. Circumlocution(ACHIEV-PSY)	64 (37.4%)	39 (22.8%)	103 (60.20%)
5. Meaning replacement (AVOID)***	59 (34.5%)	30 (17.5%)	89 (52%)
6. Asking for confirmation (ACHIVE-INTERACT)	63 (36.8%)	21 (12.3%)	84 (49.10%)
7. self-rephrasing (ACHIEVE-PSY)	56 (32.7%)	28 (16.4%)	84 (49.10%)

* Achievement strategies (interactional)
** Achievement strategies (psycholinguistic)
*** Avoidance strategies

As shown in Table 4.3 above, the two major categories of the present study's taxonomy, i.e., avoidance strategies and achievement strategies, are both reported to be used most by the respondents. As far as avoidance strategies are concerned, *meaning replacement* (one of the avoidance-strategies used in the present study's taxonomy) was found to be the fifth strategy used most by the respondents. On the other hand, achievement strategies underlying psycholinguistic strategies (12 OCSs) and interactional strategies (five OCSs) are represented in the table above by five strategies, i.e., asking for repetition, self-repair, asking for clarification, circumlocution, and asking for confirmation. This indicates that Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia attempt to execute their communicative goals with the help of adopting achievement strategies, though they reported that they avoid achieving their original communicative goal in particular situations.

As for the secnd major category of the study's taxonomy (achievement strategies), the sub-category *psycholinguistic strategies*, though it consists of 12 OCSs, was represented in the above table only by OCSs, i.e., circumlocution, self-repair, and self-rephrasing. On the other hand, the sub-category *interactional strategies*, (consisting of five OCSs in the study's taxonomy), had the largest representation with three out of the six OCSs employed most by the respondents of the present study, i.e., asking for repetition, asking for clarification, and asking for confirmation. This shows that the respondents tend to solve their communicative difficulties using more interactional strategies than psycholinguistics ones.

A descriptive analysis including mean, standard deviation, maximum and minimum of the various OCSs was another statistical technique adopted by the present study in order to get a comprehensive picture of the types of oral communication strategies used most by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. Table 4.4 below presents a summary of the findings of the descriptive analysis.

Table 4.4

Descriptive Statistics the OCS Use by the Yemeni Postgraduates in Malaysia (n=171)

OCSs	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min	Max	Mode
I. Avoidance Strategies					
1. Topic avoidance	3.24	1.141	1	5	3
2. Message abandonment	2.87	1.178	1	5	3
3. Meaning replacement	3.43	1.122	1	5	4
II. Achievement Strategies **A. Psycholinguistic Strategies**					
1. Approximation	3.01	1.246	1	5	4
2. Mime	3.17	1.163	1	5	4

OCSs	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min	Max	Mode
3. Word coinage	3.29	1.220	1	5	4
4. Circumlocution	3.64	1.067	1	5	4
5. Code-switching	2.09	1.129	1	5	1
6. Literal translation	2.41	1.277	1	5	1
7. Restructuring	3.26	1.155	1	5	4
8. Retrieval	2.90	1.186	1	5	3
9. Use of all-purposes words	3.19	1.168	1	5	4
10. Use of similar-sounding words (E)	2.68	1.136	1	5	3
10. Use of similar-sounding words (NE)	2.96	1.214	1	5	3
11. Self-repair	3.68	1.055	1	5	4
12. Self-rephrasing	3.49	.966	1	5	3
B. Interactional Strategies					
1. Appeal for help	3.13	1.127	1	5	2
2.Asking for clarification	3.72	1.007	1	5	4
3. Asking for confirmation	3.35	1.054	1	5	4
4.Asking for repetition	3.87	1.009	1	5	4
5. Comprehension check	3.27	1.074	1	5	4

Results tabulated in the above table reflected the level of OCS use by the respondents of this study. The minimum value of all the constructs was 1.00 and the maximum was 5.00 which are the minimum and maximum levels in the Likert scale used in this study, while the mode value ranged from 1 to 4. Interestingly, no. 5 (i.e., *always*) was not the mode for any communication strategy, which indicated that this data value (*always*) failed to occur most frequently in total responses to all the OCSs.

The results of the descriptive analyses also revealed that 15 out of 21 (i.e., 71.43%) OCSs were found to have means above 3.00. Generally, the means of the OCSs ranged from 2.09 (code-switching) to 3.87 (asking for repetition) with standard

deviations ranging from .929 (self-rephrasing) to 1.277 (literal translation). *Code-switching* had the lowest mean (M = 2.09) which indicated that almost 68 % (116 out of 171) of the participants *never* or *seldom* insert an Arabic word instead when they lack its English equivalent. At the other extreme of this continuum, *asking for repetition* was found to have the highest mean (M = 3.87) which showed that almost 70 % (109 out of 171) of the participants *always* or *often* ask their interlocutor to repeat what he has said when that cannot understand him.

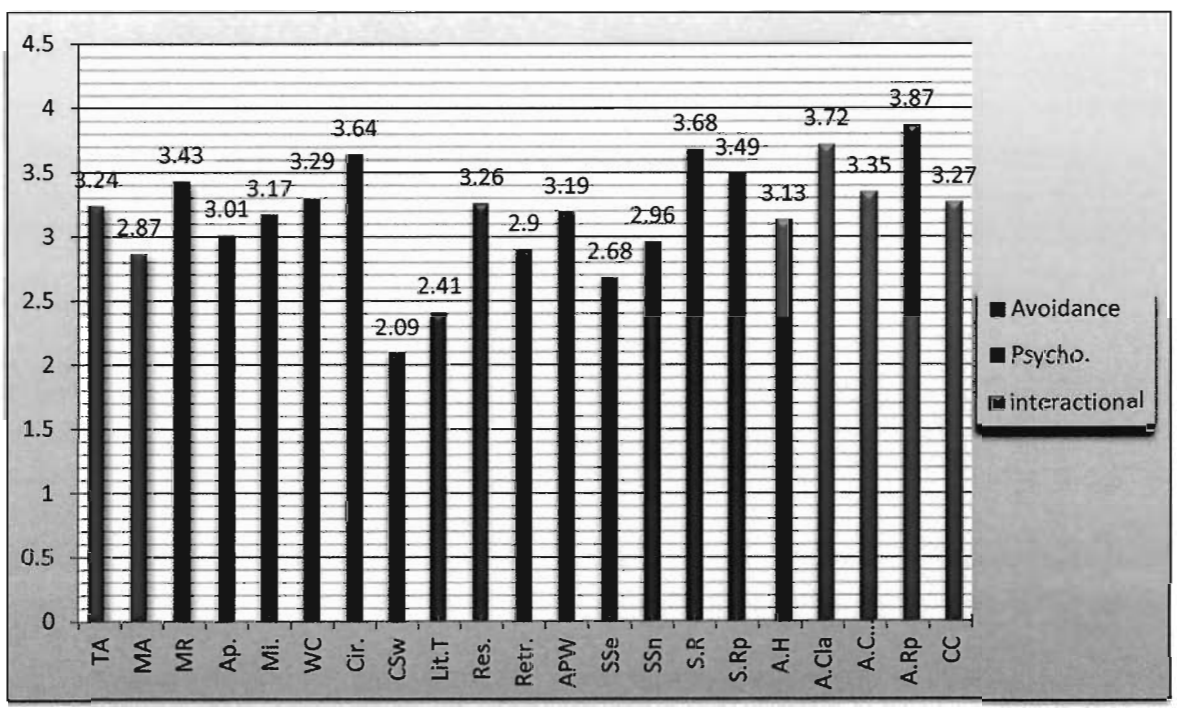


Figure 4.8. Distribution of the OCSs used by the Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia

TA: *Topic Avoidance*
MA: *Message Abandonment*
MR: *Message Replacement*
Ap.: *Approximation*
Mi.: *Mime*
WC: *Word Coinage,*
Cir.: *Circumlocution*
CSw: *Code-Switching*
Lit. T: *Literal Translation*
Res.: *Restructuring*
Retr.: *Retrieval*
APW: *Use of All-Purposes Words*
SSe: *Use of Similar-Sounding Words (E)*
SSn: *Use of Similar-Sounding Words (N)*
S.R: *Self-Repair*
S.Rp: *Self-Rephrasing*
A.H: *Ask for Help*
A.Cla: *Ask for Clarification*
A.Con: *Ask for Confirmation*
A.Rp: *Ask for Repetition*
C.C: *Comprehension Check*

4.3.1 Summary of the Findings of Research Question One

Figure 4.8 above gives a summary of the findings of Research Question One. The graph above exhibits the distribution of OCSs as reported by the respondents based on the mean of the OCSs. Obviously, five OCSs, i.e., *asking for repetition*, *asking for clarification*, *self-repair*, *circumlocution* and *self-rephrasing*, apparently occupied the highest representation among the other OCSs used by the respondents. These five OCSs fall under the achievement strategies under which the interactional strategies were represented by first two OCSs, whereas the three remaining OCSs belonged to the psycholinguistic strategies.

In terms of the frequencies, *asking for repetition, self-repair, asking for clarification, circumlocution, meaning replacement, asking for confirmation*, and *self-rephrasing* were found to get the highest frequencies among the OCSs used the most by the respondents. In addition, achievement strategies with its two sub-categories were dominant in the Yemeni postgraduates' use of OCSs, which indicated that Yemeni students tend to perform speaking efforts in order to achieve their communicative goals and get their messages across.

4.4 Discussion of the Findings of Research Question One (Types of OCSs)

This section is devoted to discuss the findings of Research Question One, i.e., what types of oral communication strategies do Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia use most in their English oral communication? In order to answer this question, frequency statistics (frequencies and percentages) with the aid of SPSS were run and reported in Table 4.2 above. Results showed that seven OCSs, i.e., *asking for repetition, self-repair, asking for clarification, circumlocution, meaning replacement,*

asking for confirmation, and *self-rephrasing*, were found to get the highest frequencies (as reported in Table 4.3 above) among the OCSs used the most by the respondents. In addition, achievement strategies with its two sub-categories were dominant in the Yemeni postgraduates' use of OCSs, which indicated that Yemeni students tend to perform speaking efforts in order to achieve their communicative goals and get their messages across.

Additionally, for further understanding of the actual use of OCSs by the respondents, and to get a complete picture of the scene, a descriptive analysis including mean, standard deviation, maximum and minimum, and mode of the various OCSs were also reported in Table 4.4 above. The findings revealed that five OCSs, i.e., *asking for repetition*, *asking for clarification*, *self-repair*, *circumlocution* and *self-rephrasing*, apparently occupied the highest means among the other OCSs used by the respondents as shown in Figure 4.8 in Chapter Four. These five OCSs belong to the achievement strategies under which the interactional strategies fall which were represented by first two OCSs, whereas the three remaining OCSs belonged to the psycholinguistic strategies.

These findings concur with those of Binhayeearong (2009), Mei and Nathalang (2010), Rababah (2001), Wannaruk (2003), Chen (2009), Huang, (2010), Qiumei (2004), and Tsuchimochi (2001) who found that *circumlocution , self-repair, asking for clarification, asking for confirmation, meaning replacement* are among the most widely and frequently used strategies. However, there is some inconsistency with the result of Binhayeearong (2009) who reported that *asking for repetition* had the lowest

frequently used strategies, while the present study found that *asking for repetition* obtained the highest frequency and mean among other OCSs.

Generally, *asking for repetition* and *asking for clarification* received the highest frequency and mean among other OCSs. *Asking for repetition* is defined as "requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly, e.g. *Pardon? What?*" (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b), while *asking for clarification* refers to "requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure, e.g. *What do you mean?*, *You saw what?* (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b).This indicates that the respondents most frequently encounter communication contexts in which they cannot hear or understand what is being said by their interlocutors or face unfamiliar speech production. As a result they ask for repetition or for clarification.

One possible explanation of this high mean and frequency of *asking for repetition* and *asking for clarification* is the international contexts that surround the respondents whether in the hostile situations or in classrooms where there are lecturers, international classmates and colleagues of numerous nationalities whose various accents and pronunciations of English may not be comprehensible enough for Yemeni students to understand. This assumption is in line with many researchers (e.g., Alavi & Mansor, 2011; Al-Zubaidi & Rechards, 2010; Andrade, 2006; Lin & Yi, 1997, & Talebloo & Baki, 2013) who reported that international students have difficulty adjusting to the various accents of the different international people speaking English because they speak English with a very different and strange accent which makes their speech almost incomprehensible. Accordingly, in such contexts it

is common for any person, not only Yemeni students, to seek the OCSs help to decode the incomprehensible linguistic items they receive while communicating.

Beside the various accents of the international students that can cause communication difficulties on the part of Yemeni students, English proficiency of Yemeni students themselves, particularly at the early stage of their sojourn, can also cause such miscommunication due to the students' limited repertoires of vocabulary, or meeting unfamiliar words, particularly in the tertiary-level contexts characterized by professional English (Brown, 2008; & Talebloo & Baki, 2013). Thus, *asking for repetition* and *asking for clarification* are the best problem-solving tools that Yemeni postgraduates resort to in order to compensate for this miscommunication.

Another justification for this high mean and frequency of *asking for repetition* and *asking for clarification* is that the international interlocutors themselves may also have a poor or average English proficiency that may cause some words to be mispronounced (Brown, 2008), which constitutes an additional source of communication breakdowns. Thus, upon facing such difficulties, Yemeni students resort to *asking for repetition* and *asking for clarification* in order to understand what has been said and thus keep the communication going on. This also shows that Yemeni postgraduates tend to achieve their communicative goals.

Self-repair occupied the second position after *asking for repetition* in the frequency test and the third place in the analysis of mean. This OCS is defined as "making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech, e.g. *then the sun shines and the weather get be... gets better* (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b). Firstly, this may indicate that

Yemeni postgraduates have a relatively reasonable knowledge of English grammatical rules but they seldom apply those roles due to the inadequate oral practice of English language.

The high frequency and mean of *self-repair* can be attributed to the fact that the tertiary-level contexts are commonly characterized by professional English. Thus, in order to keep pace with this professional English, accurate English (as it were) becomes a necessity to be there. Thus, Yemeni postgraduates initiated making self-corrections when producing linguistic mistakes in order to appear in consistent with this dominance of professional English in the tertiary level contexts.

Another possible explanation of the use of *self-repair* can be presented within the previous discussion on the use of *asking for repetition* and *asking for clarification*. As mentioned above, Yemeni students resort to these two OCSs in order to get what they have heard clarified. The highest mean and frequency of these two OCSs indicate that Yemeni encounter or frequently 'suffer', as it were, from a kind of communication breakdowns. As a result of these highly frequent situations, Yemeni postgraduates assume that their interlocutors are likely to have similar misunderstanding or 'sufferings' if they (i.e. Yemeni students) produce incorrect speech. Therefore, in order to save their interlocutors from such troubles, Yemeni students make self-initiated corrections in their own speech in order to keep the communication channels open.

In addition, it will be helpful if we examine the high frequent use of *self-repair* from a psychological point of view. The use of *self-repair* by Yemeni postgraduates is

likely to be attributed to the perceived image of a postgraduate student in the minds of Arab students (and also Yemenis) as a highly educated person who must have a high English proficiency. In fact, there is a common believe among those postgraduates that the value of a postgraduate lies in his/her English proficiency (AlSaqqaf, Bidin, & Shabdin, 2014). That is, a student would be perceived as a good postgraduate student based on the quality of his/her language proficiency. Producing grammatically incorrect speech, from Yemeni postgraduates' viewpoint, results from a low English proficiency, and can negatively affect their image in front of their peers. As a result, they become very concerned about their performance in front of their peers, and thus make self-initiated corrections in their own speech because they attempt to avoid being labeled as bad students or inferior in the minds of their peers.

Circumlocution was at the fourth place in both tests of statistics, the mean and the frequency. The use of this OCS takes place when the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language (TL) item or structure, e.g. *She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name. That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of* (Tarone, 1977). This reveals that most of the respondents encounter communication gaps in which the target meaning or word they want to convey is inaccessible. This inaccessibility occurs due to one of three possible reasons:

a. the student has forgotten a particular word that he acquired once and is unable to recall it at a given moment during the course of communication,
b. that he/she essentially lacks the target item, or
c. a possible mispronunciation of the target words which can be incomprehensible to the interlocutor.

While the first reason can be justified within the human cognitive ability of recalling and forgetting, the second reason can be attributed to the limited linguistic knowledge of the respondents. However, in the case of Yemeni students, it is highly likely that the use of *circumlocution* is the result of a deficiency in the students' vocabulary repertoire. Therefore, in order to compensate for this lack, Yemeni postgraduates focus on the description, characteristics, or functions of the target item they try to convey to their interlocutors.

A possible mispronunciation, on the other hand, can also be a reason for creating a need for clarification on the part of the interlocutors of Yemeni students. Therefore, in order to get their message across in an actual conversation, Yemeni students find *circumlocution* a good solution for this communication dilemma.

Another justification for the high frequent use of *circumlocution* is likely to be attributed to a possible deficiency in the vocabulary repertoire of the international interlocutors with the Yemeni postgraduates. This deficiency may cause them to meet unfamiliar linguistics items while communicating with Yemeni students. As a result, Yemeni students resort to *circumlocution* in order to make it possible for their interlocutors to understand the meaning, and thus keep the communication going on. Generally, it seems that Yemeni students tend to benefit from their own resources of familiar words or well-known expressions in order to communicate, rather than give up when they have difficulties conveying their meaning while interacting.

Asking for confirmation is also reported to be among the most widely and frequently used strategies. This OCS takes place when the L2 speaker requests "confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly, e.g. *You said...?, You mean...?, Do you mean...?* (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b). Unlike, *asking for repetition* and *asking for clarification* which indicate that the speaker did not hear or understand properly what his/her interlocutor has just said, *asking for confirmation* implies that Yemen students *almost* heard or understood what has been said to them, but still not completely confident about the accuracy of what has been conveyed to them by their interlocutors. Therefore, in order to cope with such uncertainty in communication, Yemeni postgraduates make a further check of their understanding by asking their interlocutors to confirm the content of the message they have heard or understood

Actually, such uncertainty developed by Yemeni postgraduates about the accuracy of the message delivered to them can be caused, as mentioned previously, by the various accents of their international interlocutors in Malaysia whose speech production can be not clear enough to Yemeni students so that they ask for confirmation that what they have got was correct.

Among the reasons that can explain the use of *asking for confirmation* by Yemeni postgraduates are either their interlocutors' inability to express themselves well or the failure of Yemeni students themselves to assert the accuracy of the message delivered to them. Both these reasons are highly likely to be caused by insufficient linguistic competence of both parties.

Meaning replacement was among the OCSs reported to be most frequently used. This OCS refers to "substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it" (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b). It is noteworthy to point out here that *meaning replacement* was the only avoidance strategy reported to be one of the most frequently used OCSs. This reveals that Yemeni postgraduates encounter communicative situations in which they want to communicate a particular message but they feel that their linguistic ability cannot produce this message. Yet, they still have a desire to convey their message, and thus they replace the original idea that they substantially desired to communicate with a simpler one using familiar words. (e.g., "Our library *brings the new development*" instead of "Our library *keeps pace with the latest* development").

This finding echoes Bialystok's statement (1990) that language learners are inclined to utilize familiar words rather than risking unfamiliar ones. In other contexts, Yemeni students may find themselves forced to say something, probably due to the requirements of the postgraduate contexts that sometimes do not give rooms for students to avoid communication (AlSaqqaf, Bidin, & Shabdin, 2014). Thus, instead of risking unfamiliar words, Yemeni students resort to the available repertoire or their well-known or previously learnt items in order to convey their intended meanings. One possible justification for using *meaning replacement* in both cases is the Yemeni postgraduates' limited linguistic knowledge and the lack of the English vocabulary repertoires that force students to abandon their original plans and replace them with a simpler one in order to convey at least a general aspect of the message they intended to communicate. Generally, it seems that Yemeni students tend to use well-known words or familiar expressions to communicate rather than 'give up' when they have

difficulties conveying their meaning in an authentic discourse. They attempt to make a good impression and try to keep the channels of communication open.

Self-rephrasing was also identified as one of the OCSs most frequently employed in the present study. This OCS occurs when the speaker repeats "a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase, e.g. *I don't know the material...what it's made of...*" (Dornyei & Scott, 1995a & 1995b). Apparently, the use of this strategy implies the concern of the speaker to convey his/her message to interlocutors as clear as possible, taking into consideration the likelihood of some interlocutors being unable to comprehend his/her message due to linguistic reasons. It can also refer to the speaker's desire to emphasize and support the ideas he/she is conveying to others.

In the first case, the use of *self-rephrasing* can be attributed to Yemeni student's prior knowledge of the low or average English proficiency of his/her interlocutors. Accordingly, in order to ensure that his/her communicative message has been comprehended properly, Yemeni postgraduates rephrase the content of their statement by using different words that can best achieve the communicative goal.

As for the second case, sometimes the tertiary-level contexts require students to support and emphasize his/her idea while arguing, debating, or defending some points, especially the controversial ones. The best way to convince and support the idea the students want to emphasize is to rephrase the meaning of the statements that have been expressed.

In conclusion, seven OCSs, i.e., *asking for repetition, self-repair, asking for clarification, circumlocution, meaning replacement, asking for confirmation*, and *self-rephrasing,* were found to get the highest frequencies as reported by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. The main explanations for results are the different accents or English varieties of the international interlocutors surrounding the respondents who speak English in such a way that makes it almost incomprehensible for Yemeni students, the English language proficiency on the part of both parties which leads to mispronouncing of some word, limited linguistic knowledge and deficiency of the English vocabulary repertoires.

Moreover, it was notable that six of the OCSs reported to be the most frequently used strategies fall equally under the psycholinguistic strategies and interactional ones. This indicates that Yemeni postgraduates tend to achieve their communicative goals either psycholinguistically by using their own linguistics resources or interactionally by involving others in order to keep the communication channels open. Probably, this is because the postgraduate contexts do not give rooms for them to avoid communication. That is, the tertiary-level contexts basically require students to communicate in English for a relatively long time in order for them to express their viewpoints or argue upon topics (AlSaqqaf, Bidin, & Shabdin, 2014; Ballard & Clanchy, 1997). This inevitable necessity of participating in the communication makes it difficult for them to utilize avoidance strategies, hence the higher frequency use of achievement strategies compared to the avoidance ones. Generally, results of the present study implies that the students' linguistic competence was insufficient, causing them to seek alternative ways to convey meaning and understand others.

4.5 Findings of Research Question Two (OCSs and Language Motivation)

To what extent, is there any relationship between language motivation and the oral communication strategy use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia?

The second objective of the present study was to determine the relationship between language motivation and the OCS use by the respondents of the present study. Correlation analysis is usually used to describe and measure the degree of association (relationship) between two or more variables (Creswell, 2008; Pallant, 2005). The hypothesis proposed to test the relationship between language motivation and the OCSs was as follows:

H_1: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation.

To test this relationship based on the data obtained by the respondents of the present study, the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was used. This correlation coefficient ranges from -1 to +1: a positive correlation coefficient shows that as the independent variable increases, the dependent also increases, whereas a negative correlation, on the other hand, means that as independent variable increases, the dependent decreases (Creswell, 2008' & Pallant, 2005). Hair et al. (2010) remind that while the correlation of 0 indicates that there is no relationship, the correlation of ±1.0 indicates the existence of perfectly (positive or negative) relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

Cohen (1988), interpreting the correlation between 0 and 1.0, suggests that when the *r* coefficient is between ±0.1 and ±0.29, the relationship is considered small; when *r* is between ±0.30 and ±0.49, the relationship is said to be as medium; and the relationship is described as strong when *r* is above ±0.50. However, before performing the correlation analysis, some assumptions must be met. The following sub-sections discuss those assumptions.

4.5.1 Preparing Data of Language Motivation and OCS Use for Correlation Analysis

Correlation analysis makes a number of assumptions (usually four assumptions) about the data under analysis (Pallant, 2005). Violation of these assumptions may seriously distort the results obtained. Therefore, those assumptions need to be met before performing any correlation analysis. Therefore, before proceeding with the correlation analysis in the present study, preliminary analyses were performed to make certain no violation of the assumptions was found in order to ensure the reliability of the conclusions drawn subsequently. Those assumptions that were tested prior to performing the correlation analysis were *outlier detection*, *normality, linearity*, and *homoscedasticity* (Pallant, 2005; & Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

As for normality, a previous examination showed that the data was reported to be normally distributed (see Sub-section 3.10.2). Regarding outliers, they were also examined (as explained Sub-section 3.10.3) and it was found that no serious issues were related to this assumption. Accordingly, the following subsections shed light on the SPSS procedures for testing *linearity*, and *homoscedasticity*.

4.5.1.1 Linearity and Homoscedasticity of OCSs with Language Motivation

Linearity means that the relationship between the two variables should be linear. This entails that the scatter plot of scores should show a straight line (roughly), not a curve (Pallant, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Homoscedasticity, on the other hand, assumes that the variability in scores for variable X should be similar at all values of variable Y (Pallant, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Both assumptions can be checked by using the scatterplot of the data (Pallant, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A preliminary analysis was performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity through checking the scatterplot in Figure 4.9 below.

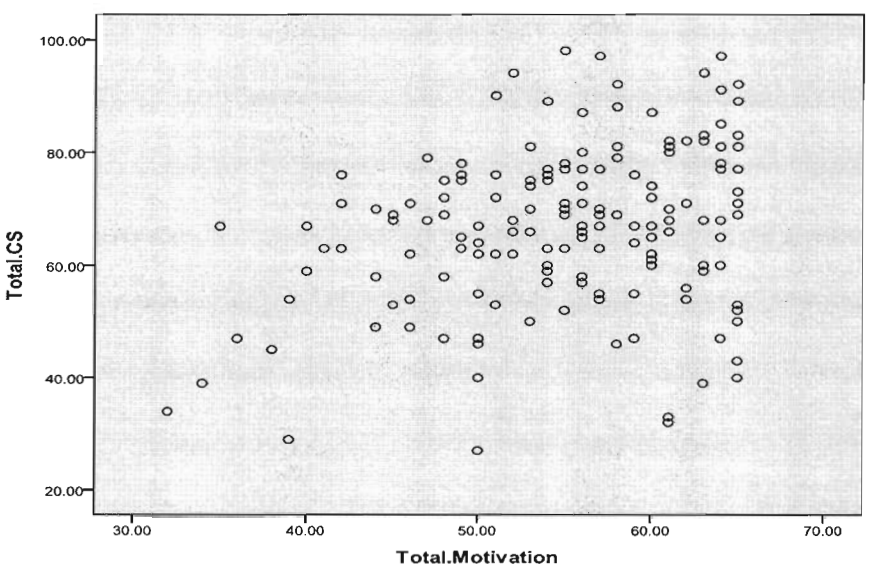


Figure 4.9. Scatterplot of the score of OCS use and language motivation

A visual examination of the scatterplot of the scores showed no obvious U-shaped or other curvilinear shape, which indicated that the variables were linearly related (Pallant, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). As for homoscedasticity, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) reminded that homoscedasticity is related to the assumption of

normality because when the assumption of normality is met, then the relationship between variables is homoscedastic. Given that the normality of the data of the present study has been confirmed, it could be concluded that the assumption of homoscedasticity has been also met. A further examination of the scatterplot below supports this conclusion as the overall oval shape of the cluster seems to be even from one end to the other, which indicates homoscedasticity (Pallant, 2005).

Having ensured no violation of the assumptions about the data supposed to be subjected to the correlation analysis, it was possible for the study to perform the Pearson coefficient analysis in order to test the second main hypothesis in this study, i.e., **H_1:** there is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation. Table 4.10 presents the result of the correlation analysis.

4.5.2 Results of the Correlation Analysis between the OCS Use and Language Motivation

Table 4.5

Results of the Pearson Correlation Analysis of the Relationship between the OCSs and Language Motivation

Variables	Type of Analysis	OCSs	Language Motivation
	Pearson Correlation	1	.269**
OCSs	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	171	171

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on the results in Table 4.5 above, the Pearson correlation coefficient was found to be significant at the 0.01 level of significance. This entails that the data of the

present study supported the existence of a significant relationship between the communication strategies use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation. In other words, the present study's first hypothesis proposing that there is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation was supported.

Regarding the direction of this relationship, Table 4.10 demonstrates a positive Pearson correlation coefficient (r), which implies that as motivation increases, the OCS use by the respondents of this study is supposed to increase. In terms of the strength of this relationship, however, it seems to be small, based on Cohen's (1988) guidelines as previously mentioned. Table 4.6 below provides the summary of the results obtained from testing Hypothesis 1.

Table 4.6

Results of Testing Hypothesis 1 in the Present Study

Hypothesis 1	**Correlation Coefficient (r)**	**Result**	**Decision**
There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation.	.269**	**Significant**	**H_1 Supported**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Thus, the second objective of this study was completely achieved at this stage by determining the relationship between the OCS use and by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation. However, the present study performed an extra Pearson analysis which aimed at testing the sub-relationships

between the OCSs and the three sub-constructs of motivation (i.e., motivational intensity, desire to speak English and attitudes towards speaking English). The purpose of this additional correlation analysis was to extend our knowledge and get a deeper understanding of this relationship as well as determining the nature of the relationship between OCS use by the respondents of this study and three constructs of motivation in terms of their strength and direction. Table 4.7 below introduces the sub-relationships and the results of their correlation analysis.

Table 4.7

Results of the Pearson Correlation Analysis of the Sub-Relationships between the OCSs and the Three Constructs of Language Motivation

Variables	**Type of analysis**	**OCSs**	**Motivational Intensity**	**Desire to Speak E.**	**Attitude towards Speaking E.**
OCSs	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	171			
Motivational Intensity	Pearson Correlation	.178*	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.020			
	N	171	171		
Desire to Speak English	Pearson Correlation	.276**	.639**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		
	N	171	171	171	
Attitude towards Speaking English	Pearson Correlation	.256**	.891**	.684**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.000	
	N	171	171	171	171

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.7 shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient was found to be significant for the three constructs at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels of significance. This implied the existence of a significant relationship between the communication strategies use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and the respondents' motivational

intensity, desire to speak English and attitudes towards speaking English.

In terms of the direction of this relationship, Table 4.7 demonstrates a positive Pearson correlation coefficient (*r*), which implied that as these three constructs increase, the OCS use by the respondents of this study is supposed to increase. In terms of the strength of this relationship, however, although the strength of the relationships between the OCSs and the three constructs of motivation was small in general, *desire to speak English* was found to have the strongest relationship among the three with *r* value at .276, whereas *motivational intensity* had the smallest strength of the relationship amongst the three constructs with *r* value at .178. Table 4.8 introduces a summary of the testing the sub-hypotheses of Hypothesis 1.

Table 4.8

Results of Testing the Sub-Hypotheses of Hypothesis1

Sub-Hypotheses of Hypothesis 1	Correlation Coefficient (*r*)	Result	Decision
H_1a: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their motivational intensity	.178*	**Significant**	**Sub-H_1a Supported**
H_1b: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their desire to speak English	.276**	**Significant**	**Sub-H_1b Supported**
H_1c: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their attitude towards speaking English	.256**	**Significant**	**Sub-H_1c Supported**

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

4.6 Discussion of the Findings of Research Question Two (OCSs and Language Motivation)

This section provides discussions of the result obtained by the second question of the current research, i.e., *to what extent, is there any relationship between language motivation and the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia?* The hypothesis proposed to test this relationship was as follows:

H_1: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation.

Pearson correlation analysis was performed in order to determine the relationship between language motivation and the OCS use by the respondents of the present study. The results of the correlation analysis, which is presented in Table 4.6, confirmed the existence of a significant relationship between the communication strategies use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation. Regarding the direction of this relationship, a positive Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was found, which implied that as motivation increases, the OCS use by the respondents of this study is supposed to increase. In terms of the strength of this relationship, however, it was reported to be small.

As stated earlier in Chapter Two, there is a paucity of research on the relationship between OCS use and motivation. Nevertheless, the findings of the present study are in line with those of Huang (2010) and Lugo (2000) who reported the existence of relationship between the OCS use and motivation. Nevertheless, this study attempted

to interpret this finding based on a number of aspects, since several studies acknowledged the social and contextual influences on individual motivation (Csizer & Dornyei, 2005; Kormos & Csizer, 2008; Kormos, Kiddle & Csizer, 2011).

First of all, in the light of the results of Research Question One discussed in the preceding sub-section, it was found that the most frequently used OCSs were those that actually reflect Yemeni students' insufficient linguistic competence. For instance, communication strategies like *asking for repetition* and *asking for clarification* imply the students' failure to understand or comprehend what others have said due to their limited linguistic knowledge to decode what has been said to them. Likewise, *meaning replacement* and *circumlocution* point out to the students' inability to communicate what they intend and plan to say.

The results of Al-Zubaidi and Rechards (2010) and Brown (2008) referring to the negative effect of the students insufficient linguistic competence on the communication process lead this study to conclude that the small strength of the relationship between OCSs and motivation is caused by the strong presence of this insufficient linguistic competence that, even with highly motivated students, stand as a disappointingly psychological obstacle in the way of enhancing a sustainable communication. That is because this limited linguistic competence leads Yemeni students to feel 'amotivated' and lose interest to continue communicating with others.

Amotivation refers to "the relative absence of motivation that is not caused by a lack of initial interest but rather by the individual's experiencing feelings of incompetence and helplessness when faced with the activity" (Dornyei, 2001a: 144). Thus, this

amotivation occurs because Yemeni postgraduates realize that an amount of interruption of the communication flow caused by their insufficient linguistic competence to comprehend or produce will take place repeatedly during communication, something with can make communication a tiring process. This accounts for the small strength of the relationship between OCSs and motivation.

In addition, motivation, as defined by Brown (2000), is commonly thought of as "an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action" (p.152). Hence, language motivation must be understood with reference to social relations of power that create the possibilities for L2 users to speak (Peirce, 1995) in order to know what further enhances this drive and what impedes it. Thus, in the light of Peirce's (1995) and Brown's (2000) above arguments, one more explanation for this small relationship can be attributed to Yemeni students' realization that they are not in an English native speech community, and thus they lack possible powerful social networks represented by informal social relationships with native speakers of English that can create possibilities for them to speak the target language (Milroy, 1987; Heller, 1987; Isabelli, 2004).

That is, Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia are aware of the fact that they lack real opportunities to interact with the English native speakers that can help them improve their language skills. Thus, their inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves them to communicate in English is extremely reduced. In other words, the factor that could have created excitement or enjoy (represented by the direct contact with native speakers of the language the respondents reported that they love) does not exist, and thus make them "apathetic" to open channels for language communication.

On the other hand, explaining the low relationship between OCSs and motivation should be carried out within the interdependency of motivation and interaction in the environment in order to know the role of the environment in which the learners interact in creating, fostering, and maintaining motivation (Isabelli, 2004; Schumann, 1976). As previously discussed, the Malaysian L2 environment is distinguished with its various accents and pronunciations spoken by people of different nationals and ethnics producing English outputs that can be incomprehensible (Alavi & Mansor, 2011; Al-Zubaidi & Rechards, 2010; Andrade, 2006; Lin & Yi, 1997; Talebloo & Baki, 2013) for Yemeni postgraduates. Thus, the aforementioned arguments by Isabelli (2004) and Schumann (1976) lead this study to conclude that the language inputs produced by various accents and pronunciations of international people which might be incomprehensible for Yemeni students contribute to reducing the motivation and interest to create rooms for L2 communication with their surroundings.

This conclusion is supported by one of the respondents of the present study, the majority of whose colleagues was Africans, who reported to the researcher while responding to the survey of the present study saying: *Yeah, I love speaking in English, but not with the Africans!* Upon inquiring him about the reason, the respondent mentioned: *I am afraid that I will ultimately speak English like them!* He added: *if I had British or American friends, I would never leave them!*

This conclusion is parallel with Cheng (2007) who argues that L2 speakers usually prefer to interact and communicate with native speakers of the language. In other words, Yemeni students have insufficient motivation to have L2 communications

with the surrounding non-native speakers of English because they know that only interacting with native speakers can create sufficient opportunities to improve their language and notice gaps in their interlanguage, and thus build their interlanguage to create a higher level of competence (Milroy, 1987).

As Bandura (1986) argues, when native speakers communicate, L2 speakers observe and learn from them the accent, the correct words, the basic, as well as, idiomatic expressions that may seem confusing for L2 learners. However, when an L2 learner speaks English with a fellow L2 learner, the tendency is for them to inject their own native words to the conversation, which in effect defeats the purpose of learning how to speak English correctly (Cummins, 1981). Consequently, Yemeni postgraduates' awareness of this fact (as suggested by the above-mentioned respondents' comments) accounts for the decreasing motivation in communicating with their L2 fellows and colleagues.

As a matter of fact, this attitude originates from a traditional perception of learning an L2. It is traditionally believed that an L2 can be professionally acquired only in the country of the target language where the L2 will be practiced with the native speakers. Although this perception is true to some extent, communicating with native speakers is not the only way to best acquire and learn the target language. In addition, it is well known that the English varieties are not only produced by non-native speakers of English. Yet, it is also produced by the English people themselves belonging to different parts of their country. As a result, the current study lays great stress on the importance of grabbing the chance by the students to practice the language through communicate with the non-native speakers of English, even if they are not English. That is because this communication will inevitably result in

improving the students'' language in terms of a acquiring new vocabularies and phrases, learning new grammatical rules and developing the communication skills.

On the other hand, this small relationship between OCSs and motivation can also be explained within the concept of culture adaptation, where study abroad students' need to maintain social psychological security cause them not to interact with their host culture as much as expected (Bacon, 1995; & Pellegrino, 1998). Seemingly, as suggested by the works of Milroy (1987) and Blom and Gumperz, (1972), the need for Yemeni postgraduates to maintain their social psychological security is likely to overwhelm their language motivation, causing them to avoid interact with the host culture, and instead they form closed, multiplex networks with other Yemeni students, something which make them interact mostly within this Arabic speaking territory. Undoubtedly, this attitude will not help students to improve their language. One of the channels to improve the target language lies on communication and practicing the language with others, something that definitely allows for acquiring new vocabularies and improving the language skills.

Actually, Yemeni postgraduates are of those types of international students who spend a considerable amount of time participating in activities reflecting their home culture rather than engaging in many traditional host-culture activities (Dowell, 1995). Yemeni students, who participate in this type of network structure, limit their opportunities to interact with L2 speakers and diminish language practice as a whole (Milleret, 1990). Thus, in such a state where segregation of the two cultures is still an integral part of the students' cultural outlook (Dowell, 1995), even if their language

motivation is high, this linguistic behaviour inevitably diminishes the students' L2 interaction, something which affects their oral communication skills (Isabelli, 2004).

Above all, the justification of this small relationship between OCS use and can be best understood with reference to the interrelationship among the three variables of the present study (i.e., OCSs use, language motivation, and language anxiety), with special attention to the role of language anxiety of Yemeni students. As mentioned in Chapter Four, this study conducted a further exploration of the interrelationship among the aforementioned three variables by using the multiple regression analysis in order to investigate the predicative ability of language motivation and language anxiety on the OCSs. Results of multiple regression presented in Table 4.14 in Chapter Four showed that although both language motivation and language anxiety made a unique and statistically significant contribution to the prediction of OCS use scores, language anxiety made the largest unique contribution (β =.511) compared to language motivation whose statistically significant contribution was (β =.207).

In the light of these results, it can be concluded that the presence of language anxiety, beside the presence of the above-mentioned factors and reasons, has controlled, or better yet diminished, the role and effect of motivation, though the respondents reported high level of motivation, on the OCSs use. That is because motivation is not a fixed personality trait but must be understood with reference to other factors that create the possibilities for language learners to speak" (Peirce, 1995), since several studies acknowledged the social and contextual influences on individual motivation (Csizer & Dornyei, 2005; Kormos & Csizer, 2008; Kormos, Kiddle & Csizer, 2011).

In conclusion, the study presents a number of possible explanations supported by previous literature in an attempt to interpret the small relationship between OCS use and language motivation. Yemeni students' amotivation caused by their insufficient linguistic competence, the absence of an English native speech community, the role of environment in the interdependency of motivation and interaction, the role of culture adaptation, the interrelationship of language motivation anxiety and language anxiety with the OCS use were all possible causes of the findings of Research Question Two.

4.7 Findings of Research Question Three (OCSs and Language Anxiety)

To what extent, is there any relationship between language anxiety and the oral communication strategy use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia?

The third objective of the present study was to determine the relationship between language anxiety and the OCS use by the respondents of this study. As mentioned earlier, correlation analysis is used to describe and measure the degree relationship between two or more variables (Creswell, 2008; Pallant, 2001). The hypothesis proposed to test the relationship between the OCS use and language anxiety was as follows:

H_2: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language anxiety.

To test this relationship based on the data obtained by the respondents of the present study, the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was used. Statistical procedures similar

to those taken for performing the correlation the analysis between motivation and OCS use were also applied for conducting a correlation analysis between language anxiety and OCSs use. The following sub-sections highlight those procedures.

4.7.1 Preparing Data of Language Anxiety and OCS Use for Correlation Analysis

As stated previously, before proceeding with the correlation analysis in this study, the data was examined to make sure that no assumptions of the correlation analysis was violated in order to ensure the reliability of the conclusions drawn subsequently. Those assumptions that were tested prior to performing the correlation analysis were *outlier detection*, *normality, linearity*, and *homoscedasticity*. Regarding *normality* and *outliers,* they were previously examined and it was found that no violation of these two assumptions (see Sub-sections 3.10.2 and 3.10.3). Accordingly, only *linearity*, and *homoscedasticity* are left for testing as explained below.

4.7.1.1 Linearity and Homoscedasticity between OCSs with Language Anxiety

A preliminary analysis was performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity through checking the scatterplot in Figure 4.10 below

As shown from the visual inspection of the scatterplot above, drawing a straight line through the main cluster of the points would result in an oval shape that would represent the main cluster of the points. Obviously, no U-shaped or curvilinear patterns was seen. This suggests that the variables are linearly related (Pallant, 2005; & Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

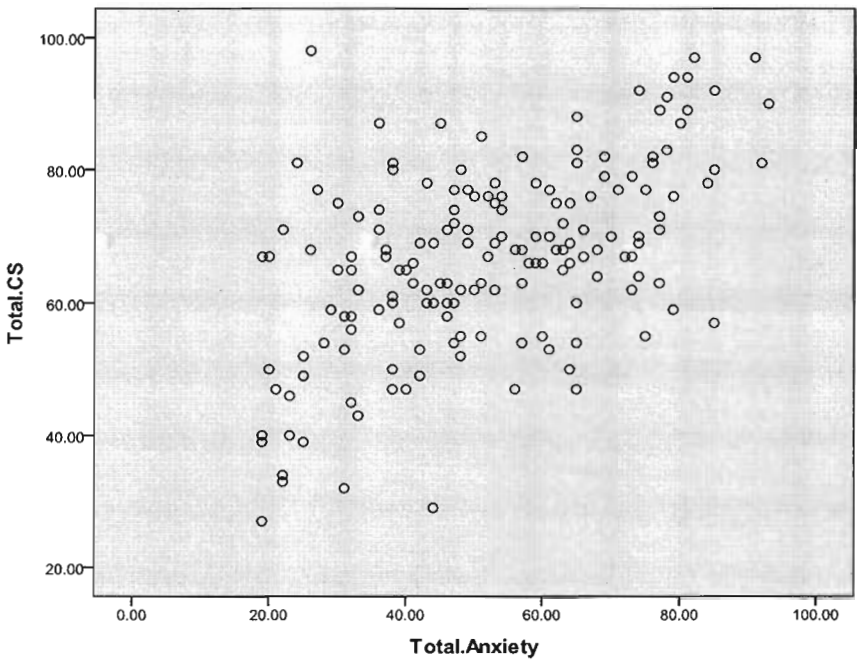


Figure 4.10. Scatterplot of the score of OCS use and language anxiety

As for homoscedasticity, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) affirmed that homoscedasticity is associated with the assumption of normality. That is, when the assumption of normality is met, then the relationship between variables becomes homoscedastic. Given that the normality of the data of the present study was confirmed, it could be concluded that the assumption of homoscedasticity has been also met. A further examination of the scatterplot below supported this conclusion as the overall oval shape of the cluster seems to be even from one end to the other, which indicates homoscedasticity (Pallant, 2005).

Having met the assumptions of the correlation analysis about the data, this study was ready at this stage to conduct the Pearson coefficient analysis in order to test the third main hypothesis in this study, i.e., **H_2:** there is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language anxiety. Table 4.9 below presents the result of the correlation analysis.

4.7.2 Results of the Correlation Analysis between the OCS Use and Language Anxiety

Based on the results in Table 4.9 below, the Pearson correlation coefficient was found to be significant at the 0.01 level of significance.

Table 4.9

Results of the Pearson Correlation Analysis of the Relationship between the OCSs and Language Anxiety

Variables	Type of analysis	OCSs	Language Anxiety
OCSs	Pearson Correlation	1	.536**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	171	171

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

This entails that the data of the present study supported the existence of a significant relationship between the communication strategies use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and language anxiety. In other words, the present study's second hypothesis proposing that there is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia and their language anxiety was supported.

As for the direction of this relationship, Table 4.9 showed a positive Pearson correlation coefficient (r), which implied that as anxiety increases, the OCS use by the respondents of this study also increases. In terms of the strength of this relationship, Cohen's (1988) guidelines previously mentioned that it is a strong relationship as Pearson correlation coefficient (r) is .536. Table 4.10 below provides the summary of the results obtained from testing Hypothesis 2.

Table 4.10

Results of Testing Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2	Correlation Coefficient (*r*)	Result	Decision
There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language anxiety.	.536**	**Significant**	**H_2 Supported**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

At this stage, the study had completely achieved its third objective by determining the relationship between the OCS use and by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language anxiety. However, the present study also performed an extra Pearson analysis with the purpose of testing the sub-relationships between the OCSs and the four sub-constructs of anxiety (i.e., communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, lack of self-confidence and listening anxiety, and English use anxiety). This extra correlation analysis aimed at extending our knowledge, thoroughly getting a deeper understanding of this relationship as well as deciding which among the four sub-constructs had the strongest relationship with the OCS use by the respondents of this study determining the nature of the relationship between OCS use by the respondents of this study. Table 4.11 below introduces the sub-relationships and the results of their correlation analysis.

Table 4.11

Results of the Pearson Correlation Analysis of the Sub-Relationships between the OCSs and the Four Constructs of Language Anxiety

Variables	Type of Analysis	CS	CA	FNE	LSCLA	EUA
OCSs	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
	N	171				
CA	Pearson Correlation	.468**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000				
	N	171	171			
FNE	Pearson Correlation	.517**	.845**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000			
	N	171	171	171		
LSCLA	Pearson Correlation	.550**	.773**	.735**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		
	N	171	171	171	171	
EUA	Pearson Correlation	.455**	.725**	.646**	.637**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	171	171	171	171	171

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.11 above shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient was found to be significant at the 0.01 level of significance. This implies the existence of a significant relationship between the communication strategies use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and the respondents' communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, lack of self-confidence and listening anxiety, and English language use. Regarding the direction of this relationship, Table 4.11 shows a positive Pearson correlation coefficient (*r*), which implied that as these four constructs increase, the OCS use by the respondents of this study also increases. This indicated that all the sub-hypotheses were supported.

On the other hand, the strength of the relationships between OCSs and two constructs, i.e., fear of negative evaluation and lack of self-confidence and listening apprehension, were found to be strong with a Pearson correlation coefficient (*r*)

reaching .517 and 550 respectively. Communication apprehension and English use anxiety had a medium strength relationship with the OCS use by the respondents of this study with a Pearson correlation coefficient (r) reaching .468 and .455 respectively. Table 4.12 below introduces a summary of testing the sub-hypotheses of Hypothesis 2.

Table 4.12

Results of Testing the Sub-Hypotheses of Hypothesis2

Sub-Hypotheses of Hypothesis 2	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Result	Decision
H_2a: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their CA	.468**	**Significant**	**Sub-H_2a Supported**
H_2b: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their FNE	.517**	**Significant**	**Sub-H_2b Supported**
H_2c: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their LSCLA	.550**	**Significant**	**Sub-H_2c Supported**
H_2d: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their EUA	.455**	**Significant**	**Sub-H_2d Supported**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Although the second and third objectives of the present study (i.e., determining the relationships between OCS use with language motivation and anxiety) had been totally achieved at this stage, this study also carried out a further sophisticated exploration of the interrelationship among the three variables of this study. Since Pearson correlation analysis supported an existence of a significant relationship

between OCS use and language motivation and anxiety, a further investigation of the predicative ability of language motivation and anxiety on the OCS use was conducted in order to deepen our knowledge of how much variance in the OCS use was explained by language motivation and language anxiety. Standard multiple regression was run to achieve this goal as explained below.

4.8 Standard Multiple Regression

Standard multiple regression is a more sophisticated extension of correlation and is used to explore the predictive ability of a set of independent variables on one continuous dependent measure (Pallant, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). It shows how much variance in a dependent variable is explained by the independent variables as a group or block (Pallant, 2005; & Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). However, data of the present study needed to be prepared before conducting the multiple regression analysis. The next sub-section explains the procedures taken for the required preparation of the data.

4.8.1 Preparing Data for Multiple Regression

Multiple regression is one of the most demanding statistical techniques as it makes a number of assumptions about the data, and it is not all that forgiving if they are violated (Pallant, 2005; & Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Similar to the correlation analysis, standard multiple regression also makes similar assumptions about the data in terms of its outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, which have been previously found to be satisfied. However, standard multiple regression has three more assumptions, i.e., sample size, multicollinearity and singularity, and

independence of errors. Procedures for examining those assumptions are briefly presented below.

4.8.1.1 Sample Size

Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) recommend a formula for calculating sample size requirements, relying on the number of independent variables used: N > 50 + 8m (where m = number of independent variables). Since two independent variables, namely language motivation and anxiety, were used in this analysis, the required number is 50 + (8 X 2) = 66, which is much lower than the number of the observations collected for this study which were 171. This means the assumption of the sample size required by multiple regression was met.

4.8.1.2 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity refers to the relationship among the independent variables. Multicollinearity exists when the independent variables are highly correlated (r = .9 and above), whereas singularity occurs when one independent variable is actually a combination of other independent variables (Pallant, 2005). In this study, OCS use is correlated with language motivation and anxiety with r value reaching .269, .536 respectively. Importantly, no correlation between language motivation and language anxiety was reported to be higher than r= .9. Multicollinearity was also checked by Tolerance value and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) (See Appendix I).

The Tolerance value indicates "how much of the variability of the specified independent is not explained by the other independent variables in the model", whereas the VIF value "is the inverse of the Tolerance value" (Pallant, 2005:150).

The cut-off points for determining the presence of multicollinearity are less than .10 for Tolerance value, and a value of above 10 for VIF (Pallant, 2005' & Hair et al. 2010). In the present study the Tolerance value for language motivation and language anxiety is .985, which is not less than .10, and the VIF value was 1.015, which is well below the cut-off of 10.Therefore, it can be concluded that the multicollinearity assumption was not violated.

4.8.1.3 Normality Testing

The normality assumption was checked through the Normal Probability Plots of the residuals. The histogram in Figure 4.11 and the Normal Probability Plot (P-P Plots) in Figure 4.12 of the regression standardized residuals were the tools used to examine the normality of the data.

Figures 4.11 showed that the data distribution did not deviate substantially from the normal curve shape. Thus, it can be concluded that the data had a normal distribution. The assumption of normality was also confirmed by the P-P Plot (Figure 4.12). The plot showed that the data lay in a reasonably straight line from the bottom left to the top right, which indicated no major deviations from normality.

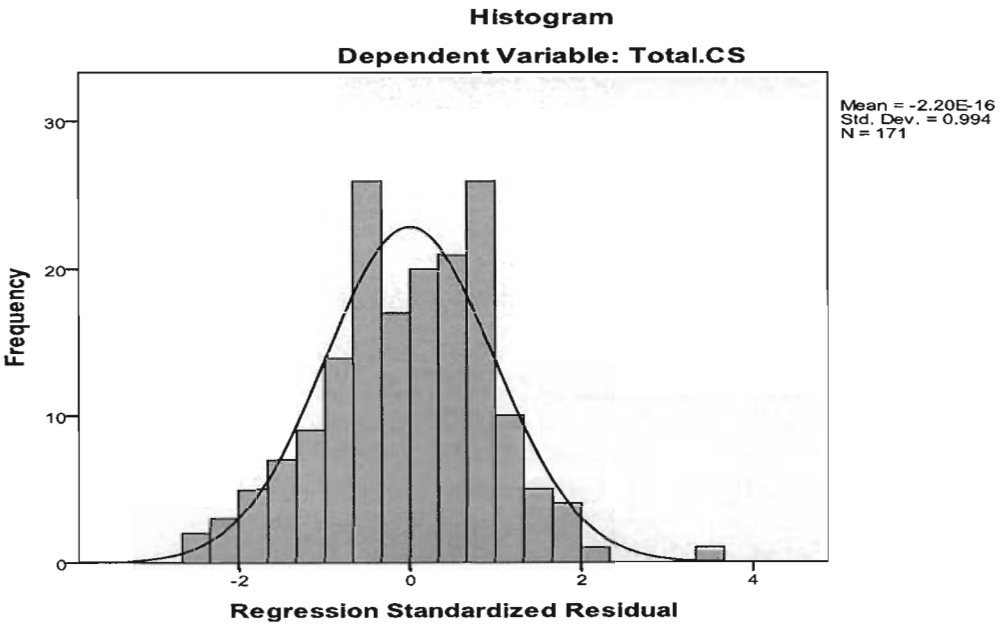


Figure 4.11. Histogram of the regression residuals

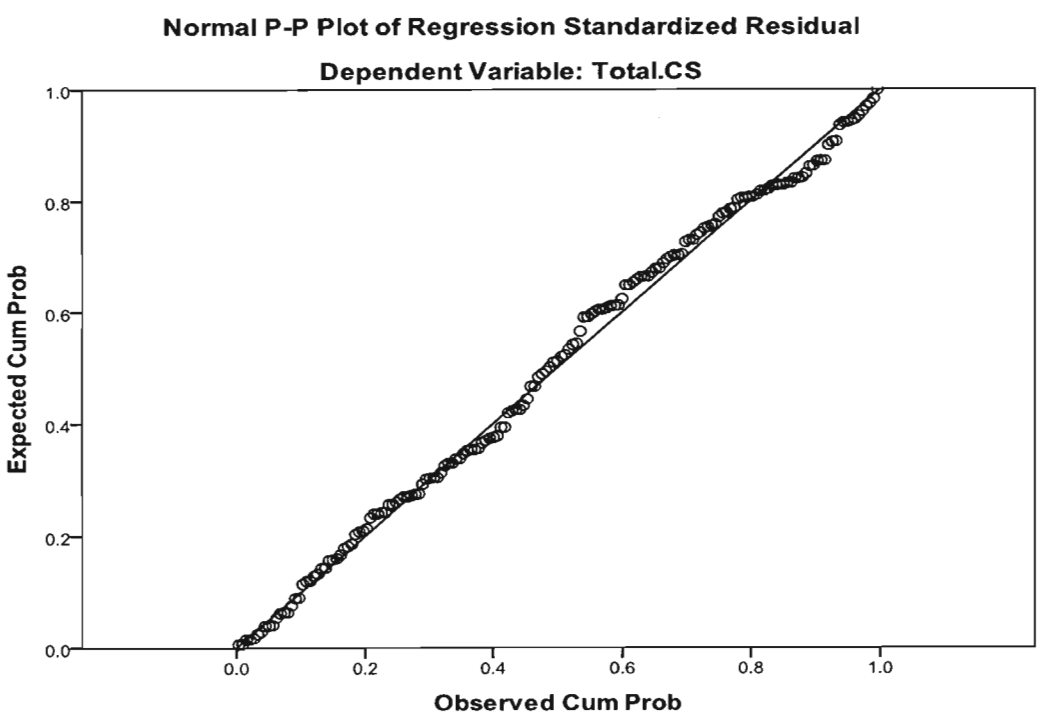


Figure 4.12. Testing normality using Normal Probability Plot

4.8.1.4 Testing Outliers, Linearity, Homoscedasticity, and Independence of Residuals

The linearity, homoscedasticity, the independence of the error terms and outliers were checked by inspecting the residuals scatterplot in Figure 4.13 below. A general visual inspection of the scatterplot of the standardized residuals showed that the residuals were roughly rectangularly distributed, with most of the scores concentrated in the centre (along the 0 point), which generally indicated no violation of a number of the assumptions. As for outliers, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) define outliers as cases that have a standardised residual of more than 3.3 or less than –3.3. As can be clearly seen in Figure 4.13, no case was found to have a standardised residual of more than 3.3 or less than –3.3.

Regarding linearity, the scatterplot showed no systematic pattern to the residuals (e.g. curvilinear), as the residuals had a roughly straight- line relationship with OCS use score, which indicated linearity. Concerning homoscedasticity, the scatterplot showed no consistent pattern of the residuals (e.g. triangle shape), where the variance of the residuals about predicated OCS use scores were the same for all predicated scores, which suggested homoscedasticity. Also, the scatterplot revealed that the residuals appeared random, which confirmed the independence of the residuals.

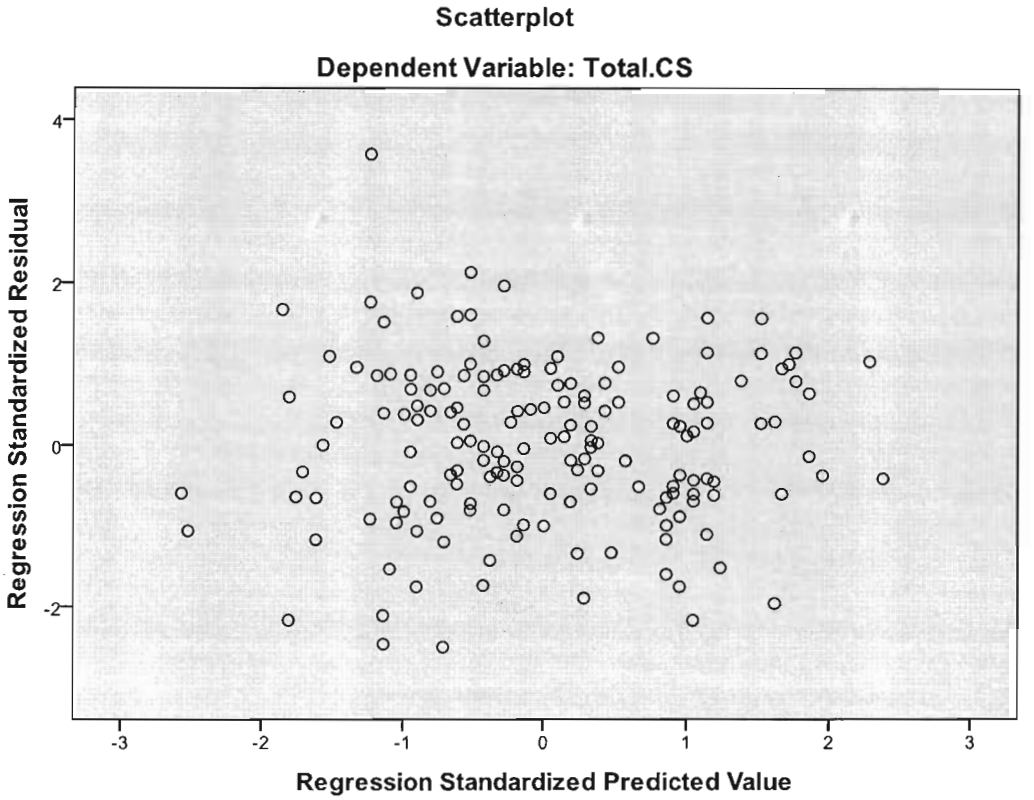


Figure 4.13. Scatterplot of the residualsfor the multiple regression

Having ensured no violation of the assumptions about the data supposed to be subjected to the standard multiple regression analysis, the study performed the regression analysis using SPSS to examine the predictive power of language motivation and language anxiety on OCS use by the respondents of the present study in order to know how much variance in the OCS use was explained by language motivation and anxiety.

4.8.2 Results of the Multiple Regression of Language Motivation and language Anxiety on the OCS Use

The R^2 value provided by the output of the regression analysis indicated how much of the variance in the OCS use was explained by the model which included language

motivation and language anxiety. In the present study, the R^2 value was .330, which means that the regression model explains 33% of the variance in the OCSs use. The results of the model reached a statistical significance (Sig = .000, p<.0005). Table 4.13 presents the summary of the model.

Table 4.13

The Prediction Power of Language Motivation and Language Anxiety on the OCSs Use

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F Value	F Sig*
1	.574[a]	.330	.322	11.56480	41.357	.000[b]

a. Predictors: (Constant), Total Anxiety, Total Motivation

b. Dependent Variable: Total OCSs

* p<.0005

In order to compare which of the variables included in the model contributed to the prediction of the dependent variable, the beta value (β) was used. In the model of regression of this study, the largest β coefficient was .511, which was for language anxiety. This indicated that language anxiety made the strongest unique contribution to explaining the OCS use compared to motivation language whose β coefficient was lower with a value of .207, suggesting that it made less of a contribution.

In terms of a statistically significant *unique* contribution, the significance value of β coefficients was less than .05 for both independent variables (.001 for language motivation and .000 for language anxiety), which means that both language motivation and language anxiety made a unique, and statistically significant,

contribution to the prediction of OCS use scores. Table 4.14 shows the summary of the results.

Table 4.14

Contribution of Language Motivation and Language Anxiety to the Prediction of OCSs

Model		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)		3.815	.000		
	Total Motivation	.207	3.255	.001	.985	1.015
	Total Anxiety	.511	8.035	.000	.985	1.015

To summarize the findings of the standard multiple regression analysis, it was found that both language motivation and language anxiety had a direct positive and significant impact on the OCSs, explaining 33% of the variance in the OCSs use. Of these two variables, language anxiety made the largest unique contribution (β =.511), although language motivation also made a statistically significant contribution (β =.207). Finally, both variables were found to make a unique, and statistically significant, contribution to the prediction of OCS use scores.

4.9 Discussion of the Findings of Research Question Three (OCSs and Language Anxiety)

This section focuses on discussing the result obtained by the third question of the current research, i.e., *to what extent, is there any relationship between language anxiety and the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia?* The hypothesis proposed to test this relationship was as follows:

H_2: There is a significant relationship between the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language anxiety.

Pearson correlation analysis was performed in order to determine the relationship between language anxiety and the OCS use by the respondents of the present study. The results of the correlation analysis, which is presented in Table 4.10, supported the existence of a significant relationship between the communication strategies use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and language anxiety. The direction of this relationship was found to be positive, which meant that as anxiety increases, the OCS use by the respondents of this study is supposed to increase. In terms of the strength of this relationship, it was found to be a strong relationship.

As stated earlier in Chapter Two, there is a dearth of research on the relationship between OCS use and language anxiety. Unfortunately, even these few studies present inconsistent results. While Li (2010) found that highly anxious students tended to use less OCSs, Tiono and Sylvia (2004) suggested a positive relationship between the high communication apprehension levels with the use of communication strategies. The finding of the present study, however, concurs with this of Tiono and Sylvia (2004). Nevertheless, this study attempted to interpret this finding based on a number of aspects.

First of all, the tertiary-level context should be taken into consideration while attempting to present explanations for the aforementioned result in order to best understand the reasons that led to such results. To begin with, researchers emphasize

that language anxiety is magnified for international students, and affirm that the high incidence of language anxiety among international students is related to their 'shame' over their linguistic deficiencies and their fear of loss of face (Ryan, 2005a) because they face the challenge of operating in an FL/SL and achieving functional fitness in the academic and social setting (Brown, 2008; Persuad 1993; Cammish, 1997; Carroll 2005a). In higher education institutions, postgraduates' language anxiety is found to affect their ability to communicate and inhibits the students' academic success (Brown, 2008) because it makes students reluctant to participate in class or seminar discussion, prefer to remain silent in class, and avoid answering questions (Ballard & Clanchy, 1997, & Brown, 2008).

However, the tertiary-level contexts usually require postgraduates to communicate in English for a relatively extended time in order for them to express their viewpoints or argue upon topics and achieve functional fitness (AlSaqqaf, Bidin & Shabdin, 2014; Brown, 2008; Persuad, 1993; Cammish, 1997; & Carroll, 2005a). As suggested by Ballard and Clanchy (1997), the students can minimize the amount of English spoken in their social life, but they cannot avoid the challenge of communicating in the class room situation, otherwise their academic achievement can be negatively affected.

The above discussion leads this study to pose a question: since anxious postgraduates are not willing to participate in class, but at the same they have to participate and communicate in the tertiary-level contexts, then what is the possible way for them to solve or handle this equation? The answer is lies in the affirmation of many researchers (e.g., Okorocha, 1996; Ballard & Clanchy (1997); & Louie 2005) that anxiety contributes to the choice of interaction strategies.

In other words, those students who believe that their English proficiency is not adequately good as required by tertiary-level contexts and feel ill-equipped to engage in class discussion, and at the same time they have to be involved in L2 discussion, have no choice but to inevitably resort to the use of OCSs as the best possible solutions for them in order to be able to convey and express their viewpoints or argue upon different topics, Thus, they manage the requirements of the tertiary levels and achieve the functional fitness they seek. Therefore, it can be concluded that meeting the tertiary-level requirements accounts for this strong relationship between language anxiety and the OCSs use.

Another explanation for this strong relationship between language anxiety and OCSs can be presented within Alpert and Haber's (1960) distinction between two types of anxieties, facilitative and debilitative. Based on this distinction, Scovel (1978), proposes that the facilitative anxiety motivates individuals to make more efforts to overcome their anxious feelings and thus it leads to improve performance, whereas the debilitative one is regarded as a detriment as it pushes learners to escape from learning tasks (by remaining silent or speaking inaudibly in class) to avoid the source of anxiety, something which results later in poor performance.

Alpert and Haber's (1960) distinction and Scovel's (1978) proposition leads this study to conclude that Yemeni postgraduates seemingly 'tame' their language anxiety to play a facilitating role rather than a debilitating one in terms of making them awareness of the requirements of the tertiary-level contexts and the negative consequences of being reluctant in class, and thus driving them to try to be involved

in L2 discussion and argument using OCSs. This conclusion concurs with Kleinmann's (1977) study that showed that the helpful or facilitating anxiety was related to oral production of difficult English structures among native Arabic-speakers and Spanish-speakers (Oxford, 1999).

Similarly, Kleinmann's (1977) study and the above discussion about the facilitative and debilitative anxiety leads the present study to conclude that helpful or facilitating is related to OCS use among Yemeni students, i.e., whenever their anxiety increases, their awareness of the requirements of the tertiary-level contexts and their urgent need to obtain academic achievement increases and drive them to attempt to be engaged in L2 discussion and argument through the employment of OCSs as their best possible way to convey their messages in the academic contexts. As Kleinmann (1977) suggested, there is an intersection of linguistic and psychological variables in determining individual behavior in a second language.

In conclusion, the high incidence of anxiety among international students is related to linguistics incompetency. However, remaining silent in postgraduate contexts is hardly possible. Thus, in order to overcome this complicated situation, OCSs stand as the best possible solution for Yemeni postgraduates to communicate their messages. In addition, facilitating anxiety strongly appears in the case of Yemeni postgraduate students as it makes them 'tame their anxiety' in terms of realizing the requirements of tertiary-level and drives them to be involved in L2 discussion and communication. This is what accounts for the strong relationship between OCS use and language anxiety.

4.10 Findings of Research Question Four (OCSs and Demographic Variables)

Is there any difference in the use of oral communication strategies by Yemeni postgraduates' based on their demographic variables (gender, age, study level [MA, PhD], period of staying in Malaysia, academic fields, and self-perceived English oral proficiency)?

The fourth objective of this study was to examine the impact of Yemeni postgraduates' background variables (gender, age, study level [MA, PhD], period of staying in Malaysia, academic field, and self-perceived English oral proficiency) on their use of oral communication strategies. The hypothesis proposed to test the differences in the OCS use among the respondents of the present study was as follows:

H_3: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different demographic variables.

To test this hypothesis, two statistical techniques were used. An independent-samples t-test was run to identify whether there is any difference between Yemeni postgraduates' gender and level of study and between their uses of communication strategies respectively. Regarding the remaining demographic variables, i.e., age, academic major, length of stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived of English proficiency, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to detect any difference between those demographic variables and the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates. The following sub-sections discuss the potential differences.

4.10.1 The Differences between the Respondents' Genders in their OCS Use

This section provides the results of the difference between the respondents' gender in their OCSs in use terms of the descriptive statistics together with the results of the independent-samples t-test. The sub-hypothesis proposed to test the differences in the OCS use among the respondents of the present study based on their gender was as follows:

H_3a: Male and female Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia significantly differ in their use of OCSs.

Table 4.15

Descriptive Statistics about the Respondents Based on their Gender

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OCSs	Female	38	70.74	16.37	2.66
	Male	133	65.47	13.147	1.14

Table 4.15 above presents the descriptive statistics about the respondents according to their gender. Statistics revealed that the total mean of OCS use by the females in the present study was around 70.74 with a standard deviation of 16.37. On the other hand, the mean of OCS use by the male students reached a total mean of 65.47 with standard deviation reaching 13.14. Significantly, this statistics revealed that Yemeni female postgraduates tend to use more OCSs than their male counterparts.

Before proceeding with the *t* test, however, it was important to examine that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not violated. This was carried out by checking the significance value of the Levene test for equality of variances which was

found by the current research to be .104 (greater than .05). This showed that the assumption of equal variance was not violated.

The independent-samples t-test was conducted then to compare the OCS use scores for males and females. Results presented in Table 4.21 below revealed a significance value of .041 (less than .05), indicating a statistically significant difference in the mean of OCS use scores for males (M=65.47, SD=13. 14) and females (M=70.74, SD=16.37), t (169) =2.060. This indicated that Hypothesis 3a (i.e., male and female Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia significantly differ in their use of OCSs) was supported. Table 4.16 below presents the results of the independent-samples t-test for gender.

Table 4.16

Results of the Independent-Samples T-Test for Gender

	Gender	**Levene's Test for Equality of Variances**		**T-Test for Equality of Means**		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Total OCSs	Equal variances assumed	2.679	.104	2.060	169	.041

In order to determine the magnitude of the differences between your groups, the effect size statistics was calculated using eta squared (Pallant, 2005). Eta squared can range from 0 to 1 and represents the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent (group) variable. Pallant (2005) presents the formula for eta squared as follows:

$$\text{Eta squared} = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + (\text{N1} + \text{N2} - 2)}$$

Replacing with the appropriate values from the example above:

$$\text{Eta squared} = \frac{(2.060)^2}{(2.060)^2 + (38 + 133 - 2)} = 0.024$$

Based on the guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988) to interpret this value are (i.e., .01= small effect, .06= moderate effect, and .14= large effect), the effect size of gender on the OCS use in the present study was small with a value of 0.024. That indicated that only 2.4% of the variance in OCS use was explained by the respondents' gender.

4.10.2 The Differences among the Respondents' Age Groups in their OCS Use

This section reports the results of the difference among the respondents' age groups in their use of OCSs in terms of the descriptive statistics together with the results of a one-way between-groups analysis of variance. The sub-hypothesis proposed to test the differences in the OCS use among the respondents of the present study based on their age group was as follows:

H_3b: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different age groups.

Descriptive statistics about the respondents based on their age group are presented in Table 4.17 below. Although the survey had 6 multiple options of age groups including the groups ages *more than 45- 50*, and *more than 50*, only the first four age

groups were chosen as shown in the table above. This indicated that the respondents' age ranged from 25 to 45 years old. The second and third age groups had almost equal total OCSs means of 68.40 (SD= 13.55) and 68.75 (SD= 11.66) respectively. The first group (25-30 years old) had a total mean of OCS use reaching 64.58 with a standard deviation of 14.45, whereas the fourth group (40-45 years old) got the lowest total mean among the four groups with 59.92 and the highest standardization with 17.15.

Table 4.17

Descriptive Statistics about the Respondents Based on their Age Groups

Age Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
less than 25 - 30	52	64.58	14.451	2.00
more than 30 - 35	86	68.41	13.55	1.46
more than 35 - 40	20	68.76	11.66	2.61
more than 40 - 45	13	59.92	17.15	4.76
Total	171	66.64	14.04	1.07

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of age on the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. Respondents were divided into four groups according to their age (Group 1: less than 25-30; Group 2: more than 30-35; Group 3: more than 35-40; and more than 40-45). The significance value for Levene's test of homogeneity of variances was .581 (greater than .05), which indicated that the homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated.

However, the results of ANOVA showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the OCS use scores for the four age groups, F (3, 167) =2.004, p=.115.

This revealed that Hypothesis 3b (i.e., there are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different age groups) was not supported. Table 4.18 below shows the results of ANOVA.

Table 4.18

Results of ANOVA for Age Groups

	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Between Groups	1165.399	3	388.466	2.004	.115
Within Groups	32366.121	167	193.809		
Total	33531.520	170			

The effect size statistics was calculated using eta squared based on the following formula presented by Pallant (2005):

$$\text{Eta squared} = \frac{\text{Sum of squares between groups}}{\text{total sum of squares}}$$

Accordingly, the effect size, which was .034, was considered a small effect size based on Cohen's (1988) guidelines classifying .01 as a small effect, .06 as a medium effect and .14 as a large effect.

4.10.3 The Differences between the Respondents' Levels of Study in their OCS Use

In this section, the findings related to the differences between the respondents' level of study in their use of OCSs are provided in terms of the descriptive statistics as well as the results of the independent-samples t-test .The sub-hypothesis proposed to test

the differences in the OCS use among the respondents of the present study based on their level of study was as follows:

H_3c: Master and PhD Yemeni students studying in Malaysia significantly differ in their use of OCSs.

An overview of the descriptive statistics about the respondents based on their level of study is presented in Table 4.19 below. Statistics revealed that the total mean of the OCS use by the Master students in the present study reached 66.86 with a standard deviation of 13.44. The total mean of the OCS use by the PhD students, on the other hand, was a 66.52 with a standard deviation of 14.40. These results showed that Yemeni Master and PhD students use OCSs at a similar rate of frequency.

Table 4.19

Descriptive Statistics about the Respondents Based on their Levels of Study

	Level of Study	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OCSs	Master	58	66.86	13.44	1.76
	PhD	113	66.52	14.40	1.35

The assumption of equal variance was not violated as the significance value of the Levene's test for equality of variances was .950. The independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the OCS use scores for Masters and PhD students. Results showed a significance value of .881, indicating that there is no statistically significant difference in the mean of OCS use scores for Master students (M=66.86, SD=13.44) and PhD students (M=66.52, SD=14.40), t (169)=.149. In addition, the magnitude of the differences in the means was very small (eta squared=.006). This finding indicates

that only 0.6% of the variance in OCS use was explained by the respondents' level of study. This demonstrated that Hypothesis 3c (i.e., Master and PhD Yemeni students studying in Malaysia significantly differ in their use of OCSs) was not supported. Table 4.20 presents the results.

Table 4.20

Results of the Independent-Samples T-Test for Levels of Study

	Level of Study	**Levene's Test for Equality of Variances**		**T-Test for Equality of Means**		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Total OCSs	Equal variances assumed	.004	.950	.149	169	.881

4.10.4 The Differences among the Respondents' Academic Field in their OCS Use

This subsection reports the findings related to the differences among the respondents' OCS use through providing the descriptive statistics together with results of ANOVA. The sub-hypothesis proposed to test the differences in the OCS use among the respondents of the present study based on their academic fields was as follows:

H_3d: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different academic fields.

Based on the descriptive statistics given in Table 4.21 below, the academic fields of the respondents fell into four groups. Business had the highest total mean of 69.87 (SD= 12.73). Remarkably, the other three groups (i.e., IT, Arts and Sciences, and

along Medical sciences and Engineering) obtained almost similar total means of 63.94, 64.64 and 64.91 respectively, though their standard deviations were different with 14.98, 17.10 and 12.22. These results showed that Yemeni postgraduates of four academic fields use similarly frequent OCSs.

Table 4.21

Descriptive Statistics about the Respondents Based on their Academic Fields

Academic Fields	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error**
IT	47	63.94	14.98	2.19
Business	70	69.87	12.73	1.52
Arts and Sciences	22	64.64	17.10	3.65
Medical Sciences and Engineering	32	64.91	12.23	2.16
Total	171	66.64	14.04	1.07

ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of academic fields on the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. Respondents were divided into four main groups according to their general academic specialization (Group 1: Information Technology; Group 2: Business; Group 3: Arts and Sciences; and G4: Medical Sciences & Engineering). The significance value for Levene's test of homogeneity of variances was .177 indicating no violation of the homogeneity of variance assumption.

However, the results of ANOVA showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the OCS use scores for the four groups, F (3, 167) =2.172, p=.093. This revealed that Hypothesis 3d (i.e., there are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different academic fields)

was not supported. The effect size, calculated using eta squared was small with a value of etd= .037. Table 4.22 has a summary of the results.

Table 4.22

Results of ANOVA for Academic Fields

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1259.059	3	419.69	2.172	.093
Within Groups	32272.461	167	193.25		
Total	33531.520	170			

4.10.5 The Differences among the Respondents' Length of Stay in Malaysia in their OCS Use

This section provides the descriptive statistics of the respondents' OCS use based on their length of stay, and reports the results of ANOVA in this regard. The sub-hypothesis proposed to test the differences in the OCS use among the respondents of the present study based on their lengths of stay in Malaysia was as follows:

H_3e: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different lengths of stay in Malaysia.

Table 4.23 below presents descriptive statistics about the respondents based on their length of stay in Malaysia. The respondents' length of stay ranged from one month to more than four years, falling into five groups as shown in the table below. The first group (1 month to 1 year) received the highest total OCS use mean of 73.06 with a standard deviation of 11.18. The fourth group (3 years to 4 years), however, had the lowest mean with 62.42 and a standard deviation of 14.61. These results indicated

that Group 1 used OCSs more frequently, especially with the comparison to Group 4 and Group 5.

Table 4.23

Descriptive Statistics about the Respondents Based on their Length of Stay in Malaysia

Group	Length of Stay in Malaysia	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
1	1 month to 1 year	31	73.06	11.18	2.01
2	more than 1 year to 2 years	25	65.80	15.53	3.11
3	more than 2 years to 3 years	22	69.59	16.41	3.50
4	more than 3 years to 4 years	26	62.42	14.61	2.87
5	more than 4 years	67	64.64	12.78	1.56
	Total	171	66.64	14.04	1.07

ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of length of Stay in Malaysia on the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduate students studying in Malaysia. Subjects were divided into five groups according to their length of stay in Malaysia as shown in Table 4.23 above. The homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated with a value of significance reaching .448.

The results of ANOVA showed there was a statistically significant difference at the $p<.05$ level in OCS use scores for the five groups of length of stay, F (4, 166) =2.940, $p=.022$. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .066, which in Cohen's (1988) terms would be considered a medium effect size.

Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M=73.06, SD=11.17) was significantly different from Group 4 (M=62.42,

SD=14.61) and Group 5 (*M*=64.64, *SD*=12.78). On the other hand, Group 2 (*M*=65.80, *SD*=15.52) and Group 3 (*M*=69.59, *SD*=16.41) did not differ significantly from Group 1, 4 or 5. This revealed that Hypothesis 3e (i.e., there are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different lengths of stay in Malaysia) was supported. Table 4.24 has the results.

Table 4.24

Results of ANOVA for Length of Stay in Malaysia

	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Between Groups	2218.582	4	554.646	2.940	.022
Within Groups	31312.938	166	188.632		
Total	33531.520	170			

4.10.6 The Differences among the Respondents' Self-Perceived English Oral Proficiency in their OCS Use

In this sub-section, the results of the differences among the respondents' self-perceived of English proficiency in their OCS use are provided through reporting the descriptive statistics as well as the results of ANOVA. The sub-hypothesis proposed to test the differences in the OCS use among the respondents of the present study based on their self-perceived English oral proficiency was as follows:

H_3f: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different self-perceived English oral proficiency.

Table 4.25 below shows the descriptive statistics about the respondents based on their self-perceived English proficiency. The respondents' self-perceived of English

proficiency fell into five groups ranging from *poor* to *excellent* as shown in the table. The second group (*average*) obtained the highest total OCS use mean of 75.77 with a standard deviation of 13.40, followed by the first group (*poor*) with a total mean of 72.27 and a standard deviation of 10.82. The fifth group (excellent), however, had the lowest mean with 59.06 and a standard deviation of 17.58.

Table 4.25

Descriptive Statistics about the Respondents Based on their Self-Perceived English Oral Proficiency

Group	Self-Perceived English Oral Proficiency	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
1	Poor	26	72.27	10.83	2.12
2	Average	13	75.77	13.40	3.72
3	Good	55	66.42	12.75	1.72
4	Very Good	60	64.57	14.01	1.81
5	Excellent	17	59.06	17.58	4.26
	Total	171	66.64	14.04	1.07

ANOVA was performed to explore the impact of self-perceived of English proficiency on the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduate students studying in Malaysia. Subjects were divided into five groups according to their self-perceived of English proficiency as shown in Table 4.29 above. The homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated with a value of significance reaching. 227.

The results of ANOVA showed there was a statistically significant difference at the $p<.05$ level in OCS use scores for the five groups of self-perceived of English proficiency, F (4, 166) =4.295, p=.002. The actual difference in mean scores between

the groups was quite medium. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .093, considered a medium effect size.

Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M=72.27, SD=10.83) and Group 2 (M=75.77, SD=13.40) was significantly different from Group 5 (M=59.06, SD=17.58). On the other hand, Group 3 (M=66.42, SD=12.75) and Group 4 (M=64.57, SD=14.01) did not differ significantly from Group 1, 2 or 5. This indicated that Hypothesis3f (i.e., there are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different self-perceived English oral proficiency) was supported. Results are presented in Table 4.26 below.

Table 4.26

Results of ANOVA for Self-Perceived English Oral Proficiency

	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Between Groups	3145.041	4	786.260	4.295	.002
Within Groups	30386.479	166	183.051		
Total	33531.520	170			

4.10.7 Summary of the Findings of Research Question Four

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to explore the impact of gender and study level of Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia on their OCSs. Results showed that there was a significant difference in OCS use scores for males and females, whereas no significant difference was reported for Master and PhD students.

Table 4.27 below presents a summary of the findings of Research Question Four, while Table 4.28 shows the results of testing the sub-hypotheses of Hypothesis 3. ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of age, length of stay in Malaysia, self-perceived of English proficiency, and academic fields of Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia on their OCSs. Results showed that there were statistically significant differences in the means of OCS use scores by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia based on their lengths of stay in Malaysia and self-perceived of English proficiency, whereas no statistically significant difference was reported in the means of OCS use scores according to the respondents' groups of age, level of study, and academic field.

Table 4.27

Summary of the Findings of Research Question Four

Respondents' Demographic Variables	**Method of Analysis**	**Significant Difference**	**Sig. ($p<0.05$)**
Gender	*t* test	**Yes**	**0.041***
Age	ANOVA	No	0.115
Level of Study (MA and PhD)	*t* test	No	0.881
Academic Fields	ANOVA	No	0.093
Length of Stay in Malaysia	ANOVA	**Yes**	**0.022***
Self-Perceived English Oral Proficiency	ANOVA	**Yes**	**0.002***

Table 4.28

Summary of the Results of Testing the Sub-Hypotheses of Hypothesis3

Sub-Hypotheses of Hypothesis 3	Sig. ($p<0.05$)	Result	Decision
H_3a: Male and female Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia significantly differ in their use of OCSs	**0.041***	**Significant**	**Sub-H_3a Supported**
H_3b: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different age groups	0.115	Not Significant	Sub-H_3b not Supported
H_3c: Master and PhD Yemeni students studying in Malaysia significantly differ in their use of OCSs	0.881	Not Significant	Sub-H_3c not Supported
H_3d: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different academic fields	0.093	Not Significant	Sub-H_3d not Supported
H_3e: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different lengths of stay in Malaysia	**0.022***	**Significant**	**Sub-H_3a Supported**
H_3f: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different self-perceived English oral proficiency	**0.002***	**Significant**	**Sub-H_3a Supported**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

4.11 Discussion of the Findings of Research Question Four (OCSs and Demographic Variables)

The main purpose of this section is to discuss the results of The fourth question of this study, i.e., *is there any difference in the uses of oral communication strategies by Yemeni postgraduates' based on their demographic variables (gender, age, period of staying in Malaysia, academic field, and self-perceived English oral proficiency)?*

The hypothesis proposed to test the differences in the OCS use among the respondents of the present study was as follows:

H_3: There are significant differences in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia with different demographic variables.

To test this hypothesis, two statistical techniques were used. An independent-samples t-test was run to identify whether there is any difference between Yemeni postgraduates' gender and level of study and between their uses of communication strategies respectively. Regarding the remaining demographic variables, i.e., age, academic major, length of stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived of English proficiency, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to detect any difference between those demographic variables and the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates. The following sub-sections discuss the potential differences.

Results of the data analysis (a summary of which is presented in Table 2.27) showed that there were statistically significant differences in the means of OCS use scores by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia based on their gender, lengths of stay in Malaysia and self-perceived of English proficiency, whereas no statistically significant differences were reported in the means of OCS use scores according to the respondents' age, level of study, and academic fields. The next sub-sections provide detailed explanations of the possible causes and reason that led to these findings.

4.11.1 The Impact of Gender on the OCS Use by Yemeni Postgraduates in Malaysia

The mean of OCS use provided by the descriptive statistics about the respondents based on their gender showed that Yemeni female postgraduates tend to use more strategies than their male counterparts. In addition, the independent-samples t-test indicated a statistically significant difference in the mean of OCS use scores for males and females. However, the effect size of gender on the OCS use in the present study was small. This result is consistent with Li (2010) who found that female students used more OCSs than the males. Basically, this result concurs with Ehrman and Oxford (1989), Macaro (2006); Oxford and Niykos (1989) and Sheorey, (1999) who found that female students tend to use more strategies than males.

One possible explanation for this result can be attributed to biology and socialization causes, as suggested by Green and Oxford (1995), which have resulted in the gender difference in the strategy use. In other words, females usually seem "superior to or at least very different from males in many social skills with females showing a greater social orientation" (Ok, 2003: p. 26). As found by Ehrman and Oxford (1989), and Oxford and Nyikos (1989), gender differences may have been associated with women's greater social orientation and stronger verbal skills. The above statements lead this study to assume that OCSs can be considered social in nature as they are tools for facilitating communication and interaction among individuals. Thus, one explanation for this result is attributed to the fact that females usually show greater social orientation than males (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1988). That is, the more frequent use of the OCSs by Yemeni female postgraduates is a logical outcome and reflection of their great interest in social activities.

In addition, research on personality variables reveals that females are less tolerant of ambiguity than their male peers (Erten & Topkaya, 2009). This may suggest that Yemeni females usually attempt to reduce any uncertainty, and consequently they are more likely to use the different OCSs to reduce and resolve ambiguity. This tendency can become clearer in their tertiary contexts and events where they tend to use more OCSs to clear any ambiguity and reduce any uncertainty while expressing or being involved in L2 discussion. Moreover, the tendency of males to be less 'self-disclosing' and of females to be 'conversation smoothers' (Kramarae 1985), also explains Yemeni females' tendency to use OCSs more frequently than their male counterparts.

One possible reason can be also presented within the result of the preceding research question. Research on language anxiety shows that females in general (Abu-Rabia, 2004; Elkhafaifi, 2005; & Huang, 2005) and Arab female postgraduates in particular (AlSaqqaf, Bidin, Shabdin, 2014) tend to experience more language anxiety than their males counterparts. Linking these findings of the previous studies on language anxiety with the result of the preceding results showing that the relationship between the OCS use and language anxiety is positively strong (i.e., whenever language anxiety increases, OCS use increases), the present study concludes that the higher levels of language anxiety Yemeni female postgraduates might have contribute to increasing the OCSs used by them compared to Yemeni male postgraduates.

However, it is noteworthy to mention here that the small effect size of gender on the OCS use in the present study can be attributed to the small number of the female respondents (n=38) compared to the males (m=131). This is actually another issue

that can be discussed with relation to the Arab culture. It is a well-known fact that Arab culture is still characterized by a male dominance, where a prevailing attitude and a culture of discrimination against women still exist in the Arab region" (Al Maaitah et al., 2011). Women have a minor role in life and are perceived to be in the second row as "the personal sphere focuses on women responsibilities for the family in the household, while the public sphere is the men's world" (Al Maaitah et al., 2011). This accounts for the dominant presence of men in almost all aspects of life in those societies, including educational and tertiary settings, as is the present case with the representation of Yemeni female postgraduates studying in Malaysia.

In conclusion, the result obtained by the present study that shows Yemeni female postgraduates use OCSs more frequently compared to their male counterparts is a logical outcome and reflection of Yemeni females' great interest in social activities, their little tolerance of ambiguity, and their higher level of language anxiety compared to Yemeni males. In addition, the tendency of males to be less self-disclosing and of females to be conversation smoothers also contributes to this frequent use. Finally, the small effect size of gender on OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates is a result of the small representation of females compared to the males which per se could be the result of the influence of Arab culture.

4.11.2 The Impact of Age, Level of Study, and Academic Field on the OCS use by Yemeni Postgraduates in Malaysia

This sub-section discusses the results obtained by the present study which revealed that there were no significant differences reported in the OCS use by Yemeni

postgraduates studying in Malaysia based on their age, level of study, and academic field.

Respondents of the present study were divided into four groups according to their age (Group 1: less than 25-30; Group 2: more than 30-35; Group 3: more than 35-40; and more than 40-45). The results of ANOVA showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the OCS use scores for the four age groups.

Before proceeding with discussing the possible explanations for this result, it is noteworthy to mention here that the literature review shows that very few studies has examined age as a variable affecting the OCSs use. That is because the vast majority of OCS research was more concerned with investigating other variables such as the proficiency level and task type as factors affecting the OCSs use. Moreover, the respondents of a number of OCS studies, e.g., Mei and Nathalang (2010), Huang (2010), and Lai, 2010), had almost a similar age. Thus, the age variable was not an area of investigation or even a matter of interest. Nevertheless, the present study attempted to give possible explanations for the results obtained.

Actually, such a result was expected due to the fact that almost 138 out of the total respondents in the present study 171 (i.e., 81% of the respondents) fall in the age range between 25 -35. Therefore, it can be argued that there is no serious difference in the range of age between these two groups. In other words, the two groups can be considered as one group or one generation. Thus, in such a situation it is normal for any difference in the OCS use not to emerge. This conclusion is supported by Huang

(2005) who found no significant differences of age in the respondents' language motivation and language anxiety were reported.

Regarding the level of study (Master and PhD), as is the case for gender, hardly any study has been carried out to investigate the role of the level of study particularly with postgraduates, which makes it very difficult for the present study to compare its results with previous literature. As mentioned above, this is attributed to the fact that OCSs has been devoted to investigations of other factors. Generally, the independent-samples t-test results showed no statistically significant difference in the mean of OCS use scores for Master and PhD students.

However, this result can be explained based on a similar assumption about age, as presented above. To present this explanation, it is helpful here to give a close inspection to Tarone's (1983) definition of which states that OCSs "are used to compensate for some lack in the linguistic system, and focus on exploring alternate ways of using what one does know for the transmission of a message" (p.64). This means that the use of OCSs comes into being as a result of lack in the linguistic competence. Therefore, in both cases (age and level of study) the concern is about the linguistic competence, regardless the age or level of study (AlSaqqaf, Bidin, & Shabdin, 2014). That is, a Masters or PhD level of study refers to an individual's level of knowledge in his/her area of specialization rather than his/her knowledge or proficiency in English.

To make it clearer, there is a possibility for a Master student, upon having been exposed to English for two years or more, to have an English proficiency better than

a PhD who has *just* enrolled at Malaysian institutions for doing his/her PhD, and thus considered as a freshman as to English use. In this example, the level of study could not be associated with the linguistic proficiency. This accounts for the absence of significant differences in the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduate according to their age or level of study. Thus, both cases should be best explained within the context of the length of exposure to English as explained later.

As far as academic field is concerned, the respondents were divided into four main groups according to their general academic specialization (Group 1: Information Technology; Group 2: Business; Group 3: Arts and Sciences; and G4: Medical Sciences & Engineering). The results of ANOVA showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the OCS use scores for the four age groups. This result concurs with Mei and Nathalang's (2010). It is noteworthy to mention here that although Wannaruk (2003) investigated the OCS use by respondents of different academic majors (engineering, information technology, and agriculture); however, unfortunately, no results were reported about the OCS use by the respondents based on their academic major.

Generally, one explanation for the result obtained by the present study is attributed to the fact that almost all the respondents have the same English learning background, no matter which field they belong to. As highlighted in Chapter One, Arabic language is the official language and language of administration and education in Yemen, where no official second language is found in Yemen. The medium of instruction in Yemen universities is Arabic except for the practical faculties or departments such as medicine, pharmacy, engineering where the textbooks are mostly in English but the

tool of communication is still in Arabic (SCEP, 2007). English is taught as one subject in Yemen's schools and universities, and this is the actual background of almost all Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. This suggests that they belong to the similar situation of linguistic competence. Thus, it is expected to obtain no significant difference in the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates based on their academic field.

In conclusion, the results obtained by the present study that revealed no significant differences were reported in the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia based on their age, level of study, and academic field. Such results can be understood in the case of age as all the respondents fell in a convergent range of age group. Likewise, the results about the level of study are attributed to the fact that the determinants of OCS use are the factors that are associated with the linguistic competence and behaviour rather than level of study, as is the case of gender explained earlier. Finally, belonging to the same English learning background is the reason why Yemeni postgraduates of different academic fields did not differ in the OCSs use.

4.11.3 The Impact of the Yemeni Postgraduates' Length of Stay in Malaysia on their OCS Use

The respondents' length of stay ranged from one month to more than four years, falling into five groups (Group 1: 1 month - 1 year; Group 2: more than 1 year - 2 years; Group 3: more than 2 years - 3 years; Group 4: more than 3 years - 4 years; and Group 5: more than 4 years). The results of ANOVA showed there was a statistically significant difference in OCS use scores for the five groups of length of stay. Post-

hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 was significantly different from Group 4 and Group 5. This result is partially in consistent with that obtained by Al-Samawi (1995) who found that the Arab students' length of stay in Western Pennsylvania was related to the use of certain replacement strategies.

One possible explanation for this result can be presented within the outcome expected from a longer exposure to the target language. Munoz (2010) affirms that the length of exposure to L2 is equated to the length of residence in the L2 community. Becker (2007), on the other hand, affirms that exposure to L2 builds an important conceptual variable in the L2 acquisition process, as L2 speaker has to get into contact with the target language to get 'input' (Chiswick & Miller, 1995). Simply, the years spent in an L2 country can help improve students' L2 and master it (Cheng, 2007).

Thus, it can be concluded that Yemeni postgraduate students who have been living for three to four years in Malaysia (as is the case of Group 4 and Group 5) must have been using English during this period (either in their educational setting or outside in the everyday communicative situation with international people surrounding them). Consequently, this length of exposure to English has a positive effect on performance in terms of improving their linguistic knowledge through learning a lot of new vocabularies, grammar rules as well as developing their speaking and communication skills. (AlSaqqaf, Bidin & Shabdin, 2014). Thus, Yemeni postgraduates' linguistic competence (which is a central determinant of the OCSs use) was improved in comparison to the language proficiency of those who have been exposed to English

use for a shorter time. This accounts for the significant difference in the OCS use between Group1 and Group 4 and 5 in the present study.

Another explanation for the result obtained by this study can be presented in the light of discussing the results of Research Question Three. As discussed previously, this study reported a positively strong relationship between the OCS use and language anxiety. One possible explanation for the significant difference in the OCS use among Yemeni postgraduates based on their length of stay can be attributed to the higher level of anxiety among Yemeni students who belong to Group1 compared to those of G4 and 5. That is, those who have been living for three to four years in Malaysia (as is the case of Group 4 and Group 5) must have developed a sense of confidence while using English resulting from their awareness of their improving linguistic competence, something which may result in low anxiety, and hence a lower OCS use compared to those in Group1.

This conclusion is supported by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) who argued that "as experience and proficiency increase, anxiety declines in a fairly consistent manner" (p. 111). Therefore, those in G1, possibly considered as relatively new comers who have spent between one month to one year or more, seem to still lack enough experience and confidence. This lack in confidence causes them to experience higher levels of language anxiety which might have led them to use OCSs more frequently than those in G4 and G5. Accordingly, it is a matter of being exposed to English, the variable that can contribute to developing linguistics competence as well as a sense of confidence on the part of Yemeni postgraduates, both of which are among the variables controlling the OCSs use

4.11.4 The Impact of Yemeni Postgraduates' Self-Perceived English Oral Proficiency on their OCS Use

Respondents were divided into five groups according to their self-perceived of English proficiency (Group 1: Poor, Group 2: Average; Group 3: Good; Group 4: Very Good; and Group 5: Excellent). The results of ANOVA showed there was a statistically significant difference in OCS use scores for the five groups of self-perceived of English proficiency. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 and Group 2 was significantly different from Group 5. On the other hand, Group 3 and Group 4 did not differ significantly from Group 1, 2 or 5. This result is in line with that obtained by Al-Samawi (1995) and Huang (2010) who reported a significant difference between self-perceived oral proficiency and the OCSs use. However, before discussing the possible reasons for this result, it is noteworthy to shed light on the concept of self-perceived proficiency.

Self-perceived proficiency is an individual's evaluation of his/her own ability to communicate (McCroskey & McCroskey 1988). Specifically, self-perceived oral proficiency refers to the extent to which an individual believes that he/she can adequately speak and understand the second language (Cheng, 2007; & Huang, 2010). It is a kind of holistic judgment that probably reflects a sum of various experiences with the language including one's perceived competence in grammar, phonology, lexis, syntax, and pragmatics (Dewaele, 2012). However, the question is: to what extent do values based on self-perception reflect true ability? Dornyei (2003) argues that in questionnaires "people do not always provide true answers about

themselves". The reason for this is the social desirability or prestige bias (Dewaele, 2012).

However, it can be argued that such a bias is decreased in the present study due to two factors: a) the characteristics of the respondents being postgraduates who are assumed to have enough awareness of the requirements of research and the importance of providing accurate data, and b) the web-based survey used in the present study to collect data which ensured anonymity (Dornyei & Taguchi, 2010). Additionally, respondents had nothing to gain from 'inflating' their proficiency level. Importantly, measures of perception of proficiency were found to be acceptable indicators of actual proficiency as scores for perceived L2 competence and actual L2 competence were found strongly intercorrelated (MacIntyre, Noels & Clement, 1997). Accordingly, scores obtained by the present study for the respondents self-perceived English oral proficiency can be regarded as reliable indicators of actual proficiency.

However, before discussing the possible reasons for the result obtained by this study regarding the differences in the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates based on their self-perceived English oral proficiency, it is noteworthy to explain first why the respondents rated their self-perceived English oral proficiency the way it appeared in the data collected. One possible reason for that rating can be attributed to the role of the respondents' length of stay in the L2 country in determining their English oral proficiency (Cheng, 2007).

As explained in the preceding sub-section, the length of stay in Malaysia seems to contribute to improving the respondents' linguistic competence. As a result,

respondents who have been staying in Malaysia for a longer time may believe that they have gained some linguistic knowledge and experience that made them rate their English oral proficiency as very good or excellent. However, those who have just arrived in Malaysia or have been living in it for a relatively short period may rate their English oral proficiency as poor or average. Additionally, Yemeni postgraduates' perceived communication difficulties they face whether in the academic contexts or outside in everyday communicative situations can also contribute to making a general evaluation of their own English oral ability.

Since the present study argues that the scores rated by the respondents for their self-perceived English oral proficiency can be regarded as reliable indicators of their actual proficiency, then possible reasons for the result obtained by this study regarding the differences in the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates based on their self-perceived English oral proficiency can be explained with reference to the relationship between the OCS use and language proficiency.

Firstly, the result obtained by the present study is in consistent with those of Mei and Nathalang (2010), Chen (2009) and Binhayeearong (2009) who found that L2 proficiency was related to the OCSs use. Since the use of OCSs presupposes that the L2 individual experiences a problem while communicating (Faerch & Kasper, 1983a; & Tarone, 1980), this implies either that he/she lacks the appropriate linguistic form, or that the appropriate linguistic form is difficult to retrieve (Brown, 1987; Faerch & Kasper, 1983). Thus, one possible reason for this result obtained by this study is that the Yemeni postgraduates with a higher English proficiency are assumed to have a good repertoire of L2 linguistic knowledge (including learning many new

vocabularies, grammar rules as well as developing their speaking and communication skills) that they have gained throughout their academic journey and L2 social interaction with international people. As a result, those Yemeni students tend to utilize the repertoire they gained by internalizing the new vocabularies they have learnt and utilizing the communication skills they have improved in expressing themselves and communicating their intended messages in an easier manner compared to those with lower English proficiency.

On the other hand, Yemeni students with lower English proficiency still lack the necessary linguistic knowledge and forms which could have enabled them to convey their communicative goals smoothly. As a result of this deficiency in L2 linguistic knowledge, they often resort to the assistance of OCSs whenever they have to produce English in order to reach their communicative goals

In conclusion, Yemeni postgraduates with a higher English proficiency seemingly do not lack the linguistics forms as frequently as their lower English proficient counterparts do. They have richer linguistics resources that compensate and help reduce more possible communicative gaps compared to the low English proficient students who have more linguistic limitations that push them to resort to the OCSs to convey their communicative meanings.

4.11.5 Summary of the Results of Research Question Four

Research Question Four addresses whether there is any difference in the use of oral communication strategies among Yemeni postgraduates based on their demographic variables [i.e., gender, age, level of study (i.e., MA or PhD), academic field, length of

stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived English oral proficiency]. Results of the data analysis showed six findings.

First, there was a statistically significant difference in the mean of OCS use scores by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia based on their gender. This result is mainly attributed to Yemeni females' great interest in social activities, their little tolerance of ambiguity, and their higher level of language anxiety compared to Yemeni males. Importantly, the small effect size of gender on OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates resulted from the small representation of females compared to the males which is, in turn, is the result of the influence of Arab culture.

Second, there was statistically significant differences in the means of OCS use scores by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia based on their lengths of stay in Malaysia. One possible explanation is that the length of exposure to English has a positive effect in improving Yemeni postgraduates' linguistic knowledge needed for any L2 communication. Also, since language anxiety and the OCS use were found intercorrelated, then another reason for this finding is attributed to the higher level of anxiety among those who are still in their early periods of stay in Malaysia compared to those who have a longer length of stay.

Third, a statistically significant difference was reported in the mean of OCS use scores by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia based on their self-perceived English oral proficiency. This is because Yemeni postgraduates with a higher English proficiency do not lack the linguistics forms as frequently as their lower English proficient counterparts do due to their richer linguistics resources that can reduce

more possible communicative gaps compared to the low English proficient students who have more linguistic limitations.

Fourth, no statistically significant differences were reported in the means of OCS use scores according to the respondents' age. That was an expected result due to the convergent age range of the respondents which did not create room for difference in the OCS use to occur.

Fifth, the results also demonstrated no statistically significant differences in the OCS use based on the respondents' level of study. This is because Master and PhD level of study refers to an individual's level of knowledge in his/her area of specialization rather than his/her knowledge or proficiency in English which is a central determinant in the OCSs use.

Finally, no statistically significant difference was reported in the OCS use based on the respondents' academic fields. This is attributed to the fact that almost all the respondents have the same English learning background, no matter which field they belong to.

4.12 Summary of Chapter Four

This chapter focused on reporting the findings obtained by the current study. It presented an identification of the OCSs used most by Yemeni postgraduates in Malaysia followed by an analysis of the relationships between the OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety. In addition, an examination of the differences in the OCS use based on the demographic variables of the respondents

was also provided. The results of the data analysis were reported together with a detailed discussion and explanations of the possible causes and reasons that led to obtain these findings. Thus, based on the results obtained by the present study and discussion above, the next chapter provides conclusions of the current research and discusses the pedagogical implications together with recommendations for future research works.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is designed to recapitulate the study in general. It highlights the contributions of the present study to the existing literature, and provides implications for teaching and students. It also reviews the limitations of the study and suggests future research avenues.

5.2 Overview of the Study

The present study aimed at investigating the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia, determining the relationship between language motivation and language anxiety, and examining the impact of the demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, level of study [i.e., MA or PhD], academic field, length of stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived English oral proficiency) on the OCSs use. Substantially, this study was motivated by the arguments and reports stating that the English communicative ability of Yemeni learners hardly achieve any marked improvement after receiving several years of English instruction at Yemen's school. This problem has become more obvious and extremely critical with those students who go abroad for studying in countries where English is the medium of instruction and communication, and then face communication difficulties (as is the case for Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia), something which negatively affect their academic performance and achievement.

Broadly agreed upon, communication is the basic and main function of language (Hatch, 1992), and communication strategies outstandingly emerge as a communication facilitator and a successful tool that can compensate for the deficiency in L2 proficiency and knowledge many individuals and learners usually face while speaking (Bialystok, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; & Tarone, 1980). L2 users can improve their communicative competence by developing an ability to use particular communication strategies that enable them to compensate for their L2 deficiency (Bialystok, 1990). Accordingly, it is important to study OCSs in order to provide L2 users with proper assistance to develop their communicative competence.

However, reviewing literature revealed that the subjects of all the OCS studies were undergraduates, school pupils, or L2 learners studying in language institutes, while neither postgraduates of any background nor Yemeni students in particular had received any attention of OCSs research. Furthermore, a considerable part of OCS research (e.g. Mei & Nathalang, 2010; Chen, 2009; Binhayeearong, 2009; Weerarak, 2003; Wanaruk, 2003; Poulisse & Schils, 1989; & Bialystok, 1983) has been concerned with identifying definitions for OCSs, trying to develop unanimous OCSs taxonomy, or examining the influence of L2 proficiency level and task type on the OCSs.

Additionally, this study believed that it is important not only to investigate OCSs themselves, but also to examine them in relation to some other factors that can affect the OCSs use. Influenced by Krashen's (1985) Affective Filter Hypothesis arguing that three kinds of affective factors influence the acquisition of a second language (i.e., motivation, self-confidence and anxiety), the present study was motivated to

empirically investigate the role played by language motivation and language anxiety in the OCSs use. Besides language motivation and language anxiety, demographic variables are believed to have a particular impact on the OCSs use.

However, only very few studies devote their orientation towards investigating language anxiety and language motivation as variables affecting the OCS use as recommended by many OCS researchers (e.g., Huang, 2010; Mei & Nathalang, 2010; Wannaruk, 2003; & Guans, 2008). Furthermore, empirical research on the impact of demographic variables such as gender, self-perceived oral proficiency, and staying in the L2 context, on the OCS use is still inadequate. Importantly, reviewing literature has shown that very few studies have combined all these variables together and investigate their influence on the OCS use to get a comprehensive picture of OCSs use.

Based on the problem of this study and the review of the relevant literature presented in Chapter One and Chapter Two, this study aimed to achieve the following objectives:

1. To identify the oral communication strategies used most by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia in their English oral communication.
2. To determine the relationship between language motivation and the oral communication strategy use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia.
3. To determine the relationship between language anxiety and the oral communication strategy use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia.
4. To examine any difference in the use of oral communication strategies among Yemeni postgraduates based on their demographic variables (i.e., gender, age,

level of study [i.e., MA or PhD], academic field, length of stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived English oral proficiency).

In the light of the objectives of the study and the discussions provided in Chapters One and Chapter Two, a structural model for the relationships among OCSs use, language motivation, language anxiety, and the demographic variables [i.e., gender, age, level of study (i.e., MA or PhD), academic field, length of stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived English oral proficiency] was formulated in Chapter Two.

To test the formulated research framework, this study adopted a quantitative cross-sectional research design, where a web-based survey was the main tool for collecting data based on a simple random sampling. Three measures were adopted and modified from previous literature to measure the three continuous variables of the study. As for the OCSs measure, 21 OCSs were chosen as shown by the taxonomy of the present study. Nine items were chosen from Nakatani's (2006) OCSI, while 12 items were developed by the research to compensate for the deficiency found in Nakatani's (2006) OCSI to represent all OCSs included in this study's taxonomy.

Items from Gardner's (1985) motivation construct included in his Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) were adopted and modified to measure the respondents' language motivation, while items from Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope's (1986) FLCAS were also adopted and modified to examine the respondents' language anxiety. The final draft was prepared by using a five-point Likert scale to measure all the items.

Since 12 items were developed to measure some OCSs in the present study, it was unavoidable for those items in particular and the whole instrument in general to undergo the long processes of evaluating the content and face validity of the instrument. Three senior lectures in UUM were requested to evaluate the content validity of the items developed and the instrument as a whole. Upon receiving the recommendations suggested by the experts, the amendments were done to the items developed and to the instrument too.

The questionnaire was translated into Arabic and went through many processes to review the naturalness of translation including consulting two bilingual specialists as external reviewers. Upon getting the recommendations suggested by the external reviewers of the translation, the amendments were done to the instrument too. Another step of evaluating the validity of the instrument along with its translation was to interview a number of Arab postgraduates similar to the Yemeni postgraduates to check both the clarity of the items as well as the naturalness of the translation. Upon getting the recommendations resulting from the interviews, the amendments were done to the instrument too.

To evaluate the reliability of the instrument, particularly of those developed items, a pilot test was conducted involving 122 Arab respondents similar to the Yemeni postgraduates. Results of the pilot test showed a satisfactory level of reliability of the instrument. At this stage, the survey was ready for the main data collection.

Yemeni postgraduates' reflections on their experiences and communication behaviors in Malaysian contexts were the source of data used to test the hypotheses

and model involved in this study, which led to achieving the research objectives and answering the research questions formulated based on the problem statement. A web-based questionnaire was created to collect the data from the Yemeni postgraduates studying at nine Malaysian universities (i.e., UKM, UM, UPM, USM, UTM, UUM, UiTM, UNITEN, and IIUM).

A total of 171 postgraduates participated in this study, 133 (78%) of whom were males, whereas 38 (22%) were females. Subjects were divided into four groups according to their age (Group 1: less than 25-30; Group 2: more than 30-35; Group 3: more than 35-40; and more than 40-45). 58 (34%) of the respondents were Masters students, while 113 (66%) of them were PhD candidates, and all belonged to four major academic fields (i.e., IT, Business, Arts and Science, and Medical sciences and Engineering). Respondents were divided into five groups according to their self-perceived of English proficiency (Group 1: Poor, Group 2: Average; Group 3: Good; Group 4: Very Good; and Group 5: Excellent), and into five groups based on their length of stay in Malaysia (Group 1: 1 month - 1 year; Group 2: more than 1 year - 2 years; Group 3: more than 2 years - 3 years; Group 4: more than 3 years - 4 years; and Group 5: more than 4 years). The next section reviews the findings obtained in this study together with a brief discussion of the research findings.

5.3 Review of the Findings Obtained by the Present Study

The current study was conducted within the Yemeni students' experiences and communication behaviors in the Malaysian contexts. It investigated the oral communication strategies use by the Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia, determined the relationship between the OCS use and language motivation and

language anxiety, and explored the role played by the demographic variables in the OCS use. Thus, four questions were addressed by the present study.

Research Question One was concerned with identifying the oral communication strategies used most by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia in their English oral communication. The findings demonstrated that seven OCSs, i.e., *asking for repetition, self-repair, asking for clarification, circumlocution, meaning replacement, asking for confirmation*, and *self-rephrasing,* were found to get the highest frequencies as reported by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. The main explanations for results were attributed the different accents or English varieties of the international interlocutors surrounding the respondents who speak English in such a way that makes it almost incomprehensible for Yemeni students, the English language proficiency on the part of both parties which leads to mispronouncing of some word, limited linguistic knowledge and deficiency of the English vocabulary repertoires.

Research Question Two, on the other hand, focused on determining the relationship between language motivation and the oral communication strategies use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. The findings confirmed the existence of a significant relationship between the communication strategies use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation. However, this relationship was found to be positively small. The main justifications for this finding were attributed to Yemeni students' amotivation caused by their insufficient linguistic competence, the absence of an English native speech community, the role of environment in the interdependency of motivation and interaction, the role of culture

adaptation, the interrelationship of language motivation anxiety and language anxiety with the OCS use.

Research Question Three was devoted to determine the relationship between language anxiety and oral communication strategies use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. The findings emphasized the existence of a significant relationship between the communication strategies use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and their language motivation. In addition, this relationship was found to be positively strong. The result showed that the high incidence of anxiety among international students was related to linguistics incompetency. Moreover, remaining silent in postgraduate contexts is hardly possible; thus, in order to overcome this complicated situation, OCSs stand as the best possible solution for Yemeni postgraduates to communicate their messages. In addition, facilitating anxiety strongly appears in the case of Yemeni postgraduate students as it makes them 'tame their anxiety' in terms of realizing the requirements of tertiary-level and drives them to be involved in L2 discussion and communication. This is what accounts for the strong relationship between OCS use and language anxiety.

Research Question Four dealt with examining any difference in the use of oral communication strategies among Yemeni postgraduates based on their demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, level of study [i.e., MA or PhD], academic field, length of stay in Malaysia, and self-perceived English oral proficiency). The results obtained six findings. There were a statistically significant difference in the mean of OCS use scores by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia based on their gender, lengths of stay in Malaysia, and their self-perceived English oral proficiency.

In terms of the difference identified in the OCS used based on the respondents' gender, such a result is mainly attributed to Yemeni females' great interest in social activities, their little tolerance of ambiguity, and their higher level of language anxiety compared to Yemeni males. As for the difference found in the OCS used according to the respondents' length of stay in Malaysia, this finding can be attributed to the fact that that exposure to English has a positive effect in improving Yemeni postgraduates' linguistic knowledge needed for any L2 communication. Also, since language anxiety and the OCS use were found intercorrelated, then another reason for this finding is attributed to the higher level of anxiety among those who are still in their early periods of stay in Malaysia compared to those who have a longer length of stay. In relation to the result of the difference in the OCS use based on the respondents' self-perceived English oral proficiency, such a result can be justified based on the fact that Yemeni postgraduates with a higher English proficiency do not lack the linguistics forms as frequently as their lower English proficient counterparts do due to their richer linguistics resources that can reduce more possible communicative gaps compared to the low English proficient students who have more linguistic limitations.

On the other hand, no statistically significant differences were reported in the means of OCS use scores according to the respondents' age, level of study, and academic fields. Such results can be understood in the case of age as all the respondents fell in a convergent range of age group. Likewise, the results about the level of study are attributed to the fact that the determinants of OCS use are the factors that are associated with the linguistic competence and behaviour rather than level of study, as

is the case of gender explained earlier. Finally, belonging to the same English learning background is the reason why Yemeni postgraduates of different academic fields did not differ in the OCSs use.

Thus, by identifying the OCSs used most by the Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia, determining the existence and directions of the relationships between OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety, and exploring the differences in the OCS use based on the respondents' demographic variables, the main purposes of this study were achieved. Based on the results obtained by the present study and discussions of the possible causes and reasons that led to these findings, the following section, thus, moves on to highlights the pedagogical implications of the study.

5.4 Pedagogical Implications of the Study

Investigating the OCS use from the perspectives of Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia and determining the relationship between OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety were the main focus of the current research. Therefore, in the light of the findings obtained and discussion provided, many important implications can be drawn and inspiring to enhance the overall strategic competence and linguistic performance of L2 learners and users. Those implications are not only addressed to the educational policy makers or English teachers in Yemen, but also they can be beneficial to their counterparts in Malaysia, particularly those in the Malaysian higher education institutions providing English intensive programs to their international students. Those implications are not only limited to the OCS use, but also they include some important insight as to language motivation and language anxiety.

First, *asking for repetition* and *asking for clarification* were reported to be among the most widely OCSs employed by Yemeni postgraduates. As discussed previously, this OCS use can be attributed to the respondents' lack of the appropriate linguistic item, or unfamiliarity of the native accents. A two-fold implication can be drawn here:

To the educational policy makers: they are recommended to improve English curricular in Yemen in such a way that can strengthen and enhance the strategic competence of the students and provide them with various inputs that they can utilize when going abroad or upon being involved in any kind of an L2 communication.

In this regard, it is perfectly understandable that providing native speakers of English teachers is the 'mission impossible'. However, there should be at least some regular modules to expose students to native speaking production in all the English classes. This can help students to be familiar with the native like accents and facilitate communication later once they have L2 interactions.

In addition, since the ultimate goal of L2 learning is communication, and since OCSs are used to resolve communication problems, therefore, English curricula should include OCS trainings in the form of (developing) tasks designed to pose communication problems and incorporate OCSs that handle and deal with those problems. For example, it is possible to expose students to listening materials and videos which contain communication strategy use, and then teach students how OCSs are used and how they help solve the communication gap arising.

Importantly, since *meaning replacement* (which is one of the avoidance strategies) was also found to be among the most frequently OCSs used by Yemeni postgraduates, the most important implication to emerge from this finding is how to handle with the 'negative' OCSs. Actually, not all OCSs should be promoted. OCSs such as *code-switching*, *topic avoidance*, and *message abandonment* should not be encouraged to use. Therefore, students should know that such OCSs are highly likely to fail to convey their communicative message to their interlocutors. Conversely, teaching students OCSs such as *circumlocution, restructuring, self-rephrasing, and approximation* can help get their communicative goals across.

Generally, employing such tasks will train students how to use their OCS repertoire to cope with communication difficulties they may face through using effective OCSs such us circumlocution, restructuring, or negotiation of meaning through OCSs such as appeal for help, for example, which can help them learn unknown words, and thus enhancing the L2 process of learning.

Teachers, on the other hand, can contribute to raising and increasing the learners' awareness of their existing OCS repertoire through orienting the learners and focusing their attention on these strategies. Teachers are also advised to diversify their classroom activities and develop their students' strategic competence through generating interaction involving L2 learners, and thus enhancing development of their communicative competence through interaction.

In terms of language motivation, this study has a striking result as to the weak relationship found between the OCS use and language motivation. Although it can be

relatively easy to stimulate students' motivation especially if it is related to the utilitarian benefit they can get upon mastering the language, it is challenging when dealing with the motivation 'unemployment'. In other words, the results of the presents study demonstrated that the respondents are highly language motivated. However, this high motivation is not being effectively utilized in such a way that positively affects the use of OCSs. Rather, it was debilitating to communication due to many reasons which are beyond the students' control such as the absence of an English native speaking surrounding as well as the culture adaptation.

International students and higher institutions' language programs, thus, are recommended to refine this motivation in such a way that can motivate students to be involved in L2 communication. Higher institutions' language programs should embed a strong stress on the culturally exceptional opportunities for international students to get to know about other cultures and learn from them and improve their language. Students should know that avoiding communication is a real loss of this precious chance to improve not only their language but also to socially polish their personal characteristic. College socializing is one of the ways to acquire new linguistic knowledge which, in turn, enhances successful communication.

Another issue that can affect L2 communication is the language anxiety. The current research found the relationship between the OCS use and language anxiety to be strong. In the light of this result, teachers are advised to try to orient their students' anxiety from a debilitating anxiety to a facilitating one through motivating them to practice L2, helping them increases efforts to improve their performance, creating

positively competitive atmospheres in such a way that can enhance a 'fearless' use of the language.

In relation to postgraduates or international students as a whole, students should realize that a good part of their academic tasks (e.g., courses' presentations, seminars, MA or PhD proposal defense, MA and PhD viva, and the like) is associated with a successful communication. Probably, they have the adequate knowledge in their field of specialization, but without a successful delivery of this knowledge, the optimal achievement may not be reached. Postgraduates must know that language anxiety can be one of the factors that can impede a smooth conveyance of knowledge. Thus, they are recommended to realize the serious impact of anxiety and try to refine it and make it a facilitating one so that it can serve as a helping factor rather than a disappointing or impeding one during their study journey. They should also know that without refining this anxiety, this will negatively affect their ability to argue debate and may lack the required self-confidence when they join their future work.

Actually, it is well known that many factors contribute to anxiety such as low English proficiency, fear of making mistakes and being laughed at, and lack of confidence. Therefore, when dealing with anxiety, neither the educational policy makers nor the curricula seem to have effective coping strategies. However, educational institutions, whether higher ones or schools, are advised to formally adopt a principle in an attempt to decrease the students' levels of language anxiety. This principle should include that "FL/SL is not our native language, and therefore, it is common and unavoidable for us to make mistakes". Also, it should be affirmed that "it is difficult to acquire an FL/SL native like accent especially in a short time".

This principle should be spread among L2 learners and users in such a way that can make students deeply believe in it, which may hopefully help them become less anxious and more willing to speak the target language in English oral lessons without fearing of being laughed at or making mistakes. Once this principle is 'embraced' by the students, language anxiety is hoped to be decreased. Teachers also have a great role in creating a relaxing and supportive classroom environment and providing interesting topics and practice time for speaking English so that students' interest and motivation to speak English may be enhanced.

5.5 Strengths of the Study

This study shed light on the OCS use from the perspectives of Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia, and also drew significant conclusions pertinent to the relationship between the OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety. This investigation resulted in a number of contributions in the field of OCS use as well as in the fields of language motivation and language anxiety.

Firstly, the deficiency perceived in Nakatani's (2006) OCSI did not impede this study's progress from continuing with investigating the OCSs as previously planned based on the taxonomy that had been selected for the study. Therefore, in order to handle with this deficiency, the study successfully developed 12 items that represented 11 OCSs out of the 20 included in the investigation made by this study. Although the process of evaluating the validity and reliability of the whole survey was really challenging, this study was concerned to achieve a valid and reliable

instrument. Those 12 items can be replicated for future research in the field of OCSs use.

Secondly, the current research, from a theoretical perspective is eligible to serve as a base for future investigation into the relationship between the OCS use and language motivation. That is because reviewing literature showed a severe dearth in the studies in this regard. Similarly, research on the role played by language anxiety in the choice of OCSs also suffers from extreme paucity. Thus, the present study contributed to reduce this gap in both fields by investigating the relationship between the OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety.

Thirdly, significantly, this study managed to incorporate three major variables (OCSs, language motivation, and language anxiety) that are believed to play an influential role in L2 acquisition and practice. To the researcher's best knowledge, very limited studies have investigated the relationship among three variables together. Examining the degree of associations among OCSs, language motivation, and language anxiety achieved by the present study was significant in order to know which among these two affective variables better facilitate the OCSs and thus enhance communication patterns of the L2 speakers and which factor impedes this communicative process.

Fourthly, postgraduate students have almost been beyond the interest of SLA research as the considerable attention has been given to school students or undergraduates (AlSaqqaf, Bidin, & Shabdin, 2014). Nevertheless, the current study provided a new perspective of investigating not only the OCSs use, but also language motivation and language anxiety based on the data provided by the postgraduates in this study.

Fifthly, although the main purpose of this study was to determine the degree and direction of association among the aforementioned variables, the concern held by current research to deepen our understanding of the predictive ability of language motivation and language anxiety on the OCS use motivated the tendency of data analysis to initiate a further sophisticated exploration of the interrelationship among the three variables of this study by performing multiple regression analysis. One of the striking results obtained by this analysis revealed that language anxiety made the strongest unique contribution to explaining the OCS use compared to motivation language. This analysis helped extend our knowledge of how these three variables work together and how much variance in the OCS use was explained by language motivation and language anxiety.

Sixthly, this study was unique in the technique it employed to distribute the survey. Using a web-based survey was not only a new technique that made this study to be among the pioneer studies in using online administration, but also it contributed to ensuring the respondents' privacy particularly with the presence of such a sensitive variable as language anxiety.

Seventhly, the study also contributed to reduce the gap perceived by the mixed results obtained by previous studies pertinent to the impact of demographic variables on the OCS use through examining the impact of gender, age, level of study (MA or PhD), academic field, length of stay in the host culture, and the self-perceived English oral proficiency on the OCSs use.

5.6 Limitations of the Study

Hopefully, the present study has provided a number of insights and significant information on the use of OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia, and also shed lights on the role of the respondents' language motivation and language anxiety in the OCSs use. However, doing research work in general can never be limitations free. The main limitations of this study are highlighted below.

Firstly, the present study witnessed a low rate of female respondents compared to the males, which is, though beyond the study's control, considered as one of the limitations of this study that can affect its generalizability.

Secondly, a larger number of the respondents belonged to IT and business majors. Although this is an actual reflection of Yemeni postgraduates' situation in reality, the issue of generalizability is also questionable here.

Thirdly, The OCS measure in the questionnaire survey of the study contained 20 OCSs based on the rationale presented in Chapter Two. Dornyei and Scott (1995a & 1995b), however, reported a larger number of OCSs that were found to be used by L2 speakers. More OCSs, if included in the survey questionnaire, could have provided a broader range for the respondents of the study to reflect on their communication experience, and thus, a more inclusive picture of the OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia could have been drawn.

Finally, this study adopted a survey questionnaire research design that used the cross-sectional data collected at a particular point of time to. It is well known that the

information obtained from cross-sectional survey questionnaires demonstrate the extent of association between variables from a statistically point of view. Therefore, while the causal relationships can be inferred based on the results obtained, they cannot be strictly ascertained or taken for granted.

5.7 Recommendations for Future Research

The present research can be a source of inspiration for future research opportunities to be conducted. For example, since the present research developed new items that measured a number of OCSs, other studies are recommended to replicate this study in order to confirm the validity and reliability of the results, with a special attention to the items developed.

In addition, as seen throughout this research, only 20 OCSs were under investigation. Actually, measuring a larger number of OCSs can [that can be adopted from Dornyei and Scott (1995a & 1995b), as an example] would undoubtedly provide a wider range of choice of OCSs to be reflected on by the respondents, even though this task can be challenging to researchers. That is because quantitatively measuring the OCSs included in Dornyei and Scott (1995a & 1995b) requires going through the unavoidable steps of developing items and then evaluating the validity and reliability.

Moreover, future research can adopt a qualitative research through conducting experiments where the experimental group is taught how to utilize effective OCSs when communicating in L2, while the control group receives ordinary teaching, and then explore the differences that are likely to emerge after the experiment being carried out.

Another recommendation is that a longitudinal research could be also mixed with a qualitative research using experiments in order to compare the linguistics behaviour not only between experimental and control groups, but also within the experimental group itself in order to explore the changes possible to take place in the strategic competence of the experimental group over time before and after learning how to utilize OCSs.

Furthermore, a comparative research work can be done between Yemeni and Malaysian students (or students of other backgrounds) not only to investigate the OCS use of both groups, but also to examine the language motivation and anxiety language in order to extend our knowledge of socio-cultural influence on the mechanism of the work of these variables. Also, comparing the OCSs, the language motivation and anxiety between postgraduate and undergraduates can also provide useful insights in this regard.

5.8 Conclusion of the Study

This research was an investigation into the OCS use from the perspectives of Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia. It was also a correlational study that determined the relationship between the OCS use with language motivation and language anxiety. Based on the findings and discussions of this study, the following concluding remarks can be drawn:

a) Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia employ achievement and avoidance strategies, where *asking for repetition, self-repair, asking for clarification, circumlocution, meaning replacement, asking for confirmation*, and *self-rephrasing* were the most frequently used OCSs.

b) Strikingly, the relationship between the Yemeni postgraduates' language motivation and their OCS use is positively weak.

c) Surprisingly, there is a positively strong relationship between the Yemeni postgraduates' language anxiety and their OCSs use.

d) Yemeni female postgraduates use more OCSs compared to their male counterparts.

e) Postgraduates with poor and average self-perceived English oral proficiency employ more OCSs than those who rated their self-perceived English oral proficiency as good or very good.

f) Relatively newcomer students to Malaysia (who have been staying in Malaysia from one month to one year) utilize more OCSs with comparison to those who have been staying for a longer time.

g) Finally, Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia do not differ in using OCSs based on their age, level of study (whether they are PhD or Masters students), and academic fields.

Those results have provided an inclusive picture of the patterns of OCS use by Yemeni postgraduates studying in Malaysia in order to facilitate their L2 communication and reduce any misunderstanding gap. The current study also presented valuable insights into the role played by language motivation, language anxiety, and the demographic variables in the use of OCSs. Throughout this study, the researcher made her best through the long challenging process of evaluating the validity and reliability of the developed items and the whole instrument employed, as well as through the process of statistically analyzing the data.

The findings of this study may motivate other researchers to further investigate the OCSs from a wider point of view, and examine the role of motivation and anxiety in other contexts. As mentioned earlier, the paucity of research on both the OCSs in a tertiary-level and the relationship of this use with language motivation and anxiety study can open a new channel for other research work to begin another new, hopefully interesting and rewarding, journey.

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